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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 2, 1897.

The Week.

Both in Nebraska and in Pennsylvania on Thursday, Republican State conventions jubilated over "dollar wheat," and asserted that it had made silver a dead issue. The Pennsylvania platform distinctly says: "Dollar wheat has sounded the death-knell of the free-coinage heresy." This is highly gratifying, and it also contains an undoubted truth. No man with eyes in his head can question the immense political effect, or the advantage to the cause of sound money, produced by wheat's going up in price while silver is going down. But to admit this and rejoice in it is one thing; it is quite another to say that dollar wheat has made an end of free silver. Suppose wheat goes back to 75 or 60 cents next year, as is at least possible, what becomes of the Pennsylvania argument? The dead heresy will prove a very lively corpse. The real moral of the situation is that advantage should be taken of the highly favorable opportunity, not only to ring death-knells of free coinage, but to so lock and bar its tomb that no political resurrectionists can drag it out again to afflict us. If the Republicans were really heart and soul for the gold standard, they would seize instantly on their strategic chance to imbed it in the law of the land beyond question or repeal. "Dollar wheat" would spur them to activity, not lull them into a fool's paradise of confidence that all will be for the best in the best of possible worlds, so long as the Republicans are in power.

The rise in value of the rupee of India coincidently with the fall of silver bullion is as decided as the simultaneous rise of wheat, and is due to the same general cause, *i. e.*, to the law of supply and demand. Wheat has gone up because supply has fallen off as compared with demand. Rupees have advanced because demand has increased as compared with supply. Since the closing of the Indian mints the number of rupees in existence remains fixed; that is, the number cannot be increased, but may be diminished slightly by loss, by fire, or other accident. So, whenever an increase of demand comes, there will be a rise in the price. When the Indian mints were closed, the market value of the rupee was 15½d. It declined gradually to 13d., and, after fluctuating within narrow limits, began to rise again. The present quotation of the rupee in English money is 15½d., or a little more than the price at which it sold in 1893, when the mints were closed. In the

meanwhile silver has fallen so that the bullion value of the rupee is only 9d. The Government of India has made a saving of \$25,000,000 per annum on its remittances to Europe by stopping the "free coinage of silver." If the mints had been kept open, the value of the rupee, in which all taxes are collected, would have been exactly that of the silver bullion contained in it. Guided by this experience it is impossible to suppose that the Indian Government will reopen the mints in order to make a new experiment in bimetallism.

Senator Chandler makes a noteworthy admission in his contrite apology to his constituents for not discovering the discriminating-duty clause on foreign goods entering his country through Canada, when he says: "Having had experience with conference reports which should have warned me to read every word of this report, I have no excuse to offer for not doing so. I hope to be forgiven by my constituents, but I shall never forgive myself." That is to say, he knew his colleagues would bear watching, and should not have taken their word for it, solemnly uttered in the Senate, that in this instance they intended to play fair. It would be very interesting, as well as useful, if Mr. Chandler would cite the experiences which he says should have served as a warning to him. Nothing would help so much to break up the practice as a full revelation of its workings, and Mr. Chandler might find some solace for his grief in warding off from other confiding statesmen like woe in the future. He would do well also to insist, when Congress shall come together again, upon such rigid definition and regulation of the powers of conference committees as will make future tricks of the kind impossible.

Lawyers have been in the habit of joking over statutes "through which a coach and four could be driven," but what kind of definition will they invent for the now famous clause 22 of the Dingley bill? The more it is examined the more extraordinary a piece of legislation does it appear to be. Instead of a coach and four, transcontinental railroads and lines of ocean steamships find plenty of room in the clause, and Congress never knew it! It now appears that one of the questions with which the Attorney-General is wrestling is whether clause 22 does not levy a discriminating duty of 10 per cent. on goods imported in vessels of all countries not expressly exempted by treaties. Exemption has previously been made by "act of Congress," but those words were slipped out of the clause in conference, just

as the words about a "contiguous country" were slipped in. Thus it is possible that the clause strikes a blow at English and French shipping as well as at the Canadian Pacific Railroad. German, Austrian, and Swedish steamships would be exempt by treaty; but English and French only as respects goods shipped from English and French ports. A good part of their freight would be subject to the discriminating duty.

Now this new "joker" in the bill was just as much a "legislative trick" as was, according to Senator Chandler, the sly insertion of the "contiguous-country" phrase. Mr. Dingley knew nothing about the imposition which was being practised on himself and on Congress. He was asked specifically about this discriminating duty on foreign shipping, and replied that it was merely "an old provision." Of course, the point is, and this is what is worrying the Attorney-General, that the old provision was materially changed in the dark. Senator Allison was asked what change the clause would make, and declared, "It makes no change." Coaches and four are nothing to this. Who was responsible for this subterranean legislation? The *Sun* calls upon him to come forward that a grateful country may honor him for his stupendous success as a jobber. Others would be glad to have him come forward for other reasons. But whoever he is, he seems to be a wonderfully shy and shrinking person. It looks now as if it would take a congressional investigation to make him come out into the public gaze and get his laurels.

President McKinley's remarks before the Grand Army at Buffalo last week were in excellent taste and temper. He is especially to be congratulated on not having repeated the dangerous suggestion which he made to Congress, that more revenue should be raised so that there should be more money for pensions. There is no doubt that the hopes of the pension-agents are high. They confidently expect to get their long-desired service pension out of this Administration. The talk about pensions having now reached the "top-notch" fills them with disgust. They have seen that top-notch before, ever since Garfield located it at some \$120,000,000 below the present mark, and have always found means to push it higher. Are there not 450,000 claims now pending? How can there be a top-notch till those are all granted? And it is not to be supposed that the ability of the pension-agents to produce or invent "claims" is by any means exhausted in the number 450,000. They are good for as many more on demand. However discreet Mr.

McKinley may be, we cannot expect other speakers on the Grand Army platform to be so moderate. The President may have been restrained by the depressing revenue returns under the Dingley bill, thus far producing less than half the necessary expenses of the Government, and distinctly threatening a deficit of \$50,000,000 instead of the desired sum "ample for pensions." But no such considerations will affect the claim-agents or a really enthusiastic Grand Army man. If there is not enough money in the Treasury, borrow it. If it was right to issue bonds to put down the rebellion, it cannot be wrong to issue them to still the clamor of the pension-agents.

Dingley deficits are producing an ominous silence in many quarters, nowhere more marked than in the *Tribune*. We all remember its eloquent and horrified accounts of Wilson deficits. With the deficit under the tariff that was going to "change all that," now amounting to more than \$14,000,000 for August alone, why such delay in taking the floor to explain? The reason is that the *Tribune* was tongue-tied by an unfortunate admission of its own. When the Dingley bill was pending, it solemnly warned Republicans in Congress that the party could not "afford" to pass a bill which would result in deficient revenue "even for a time." But, alas, the party did it, even glories in it now, asks who cares a hang about deficits anyhow. It is only Wilson deficits that are really bad; Dingley deficits show how truly great and generous the Government is to pay out so much more money to the dear people than it receives from them. As the gifted Grand Army orator observed, under this Administration "the latch-strings are loosened," and almost anybody can get money out of the Treasury. This being so, anxiety about getting money into the Treasury is clearly unnecessary.

Prof. David Starr Jordan's report on the actual conditions of seal life in Bering Sea, and on the probable extinction of the herds if present methods are continued, is that of an acute observer, and therefore worthy of respect. But when he ventures into international law and the discussion of remedies, his opinions are to be taken only for what they are worth. He remarks that our Government made two capital mistakes. One was in asserting that Bering Sea was *mare clausum*. Inasmuch as all authorities and the arbitration tribunal were of the same opinion, it was scarcely necessary, though we admit it was magnanimous, in Prof. Jordan to declare it. Our other mistake was in leaving the regulation of sealing to a tribunal really incompetent to decide what was for "the welfare of the seals." Evidently man exists for the seals, not the seals

for man. But Prof. Jordan adds, as a great novelty, that the thing now to do is to assert "property rights in seals on the part of the nations which possess the islands." He means, of course, property rights not merely when the seals are on the islands, but when they are swimming the trackless ocean. This claim, however, as Prof. Jordan appears not to know, was vigorously presented to the Paris tribunal, and was by that body put aside with something like amused contempt.

The mischief of crude and excessive legislation is a matter on which Governor Griggs of New Jersey is qualified to speak, and his address on "Law-making," delivered to the National Bar Association, contains perhaps the most thorough examination of the subject yet made. The complaint that legislators have no special training in law-making is as old as Plato's time, and we may as well assume that this complaint will always be made. The practical question is how to get better results out of such material as we have and are likely to have. The first step to be taken in finding an answer to this question is to define precisely the existing conditions, and this Gov. Griggs does very clearly. Every member of the Legislature, it would seem, feels it his duty to introduce a number of bills, and the whole field of human activity is thus made subject to annual regulation. Most of these bills fail of passage, but multitudes are adopted and become laws if the Governor approves them. Last year Gov. Black of New York disapproved five hundred bills which had passed both houses of the Legislature, and Gov. Griggs made a like disposition of ninety. He doubts "if a single reasonable complaint of inconvenience or public loss has been heard by reason of the failure of these 590 bills to become laws." The public doubts if many such complaints would have been heard had the rest of the bills, with the exception of repealing statutes, met the same fate. By far the most of them are not of the nature of laws, but are devised to further special interests, and the remainder are largely the work of the "quack doctors of government."

The violent revolution in the system of assessments of property for taxation in Westchester County, N. Y., was immediately occasioned by Judge Keogh's directing the grand jury to indict the assessors for following established customs. One feature of this revolution was the assessment of property held by Justice Keogh, individually and as trustee, at very high figures. These figures are regarded by Justice Keogh as unjust, and he has employed counsel to obtain their reduction, apparently with success. His own personal assessment is much lowered, and that of an estate of which

he is trustee is reduced from \$900,000 to \$125,000. As to this estate, it is said that the assessors did not pretend that their assessment was proper; they made it "to serve as a basis of settlement." We do not question the propriety of these reductions, but we fail to see how justice is attained by adopting a system which compels property-owners to employ lawyers in order to save their property from confiscation under the forms of law. Justice Keogh knows his legal rights, and can afford to employ counsel. His position insures respectful attention to his complaints. But many citizens are not so fortunate. Women will frequently submit to imposition rather than resort to legal remedies. Trustees are sometimes not alert, and not a few citizens are ignorant of their rights. It is not a satisfactory condition of affairs when men have to resort to litigation in order to enjoy their possessions in peace, and we doubt if any one will contend that the prosperity of Westchester County has been advanced by Justice Keogh's proceedings.

The fact of highest importance in connection with the retirement of Mr. Conlin from the head of the police force in this city, and the election of Mr. McCullagh in his place, is that the change destroys completely Commissioner Parker's power for evil. He is henceforth a nonentity in the department. Conlin was his tool, and the two working together were able to block almost entirely the efforts of the reputable members of the Board to put the force on a new and thoroughly efficient basis. They stood in the way of all desirable promotions, because Parker wished to have no promotions made save those which suited his purposes. Conlin's departure leaves Parker powerless, and permits the Board to accomplish during the remaining four months of its existence the work of reconstruction and reformation which Messrs. Roosevelt and Andrews planned in the early months of their service. With the cordial co-operation of Messrs. Moss and Smith, Mr. Andrews will be able to see his long and intelligent labors crowned with success. He will be able to leave the force in a thoroughly reconstructed and well-disciplined condition, and will thus place the department at the close of the Strong administration in the position which it would have taken at the beginning had it not been for the sad mistake of Parker's appointment. The patient firmness and simple, unostentatious devotion to duty of Mr. Andrews have won the day in a prolonged contest with one of the wildest politicians of his time.

The movement in favor of free trade started in Canada under the leadership of Sir Wilfred Laurier seems likely to have far greater consequences than were

anticipated. In the first place, it put an end to the protectionist dreams of an imperial customs union, under which England should impose duties on the products of all other countries except her own colonies, while her colonies should continue their protective systems. Mr. Reid, the Premier of New South Wales, supported Sir Wilfred Laurier in the positive declaration that the idea of such a union was altogether inadmissible. In the second place, the Canadian Government, finding it impossible to grant reduced duties to England without bringing into play the treaty rights of other countries, has boldly extended these reductions to all countries that have any reasonable claims to them. In the case of Germany and Belgium the period during which the reductions are to be enjoyed is limited by the denunciation of the existing treaties, and the effect of this denunciation has been quite different from what was expected. Apprehensions were expressed that retaliatory measures would be adopted; but nothing appears to be further from the thoughts of the Germans and the Belgians. On the contrary, they seem to have considered the prompt denunciation of the treaties as a sign that England was prepared to adopt retaliatory measures herself, and to have been alarmed at the possibility. They are well aware of the enormous value of the English market, and they have no disposition to adopt a course that might cause them to lose it. The indications are that the temporary advantage gained accidentally in the Canadian market may induce more than one foreign Power to negotiate for permanent tariff reductions.

The British Government is encountering some difficulties in the attempt to conduct public business according to the demands of the labor-unions. Under the influence of the very old fallacy that wages can be raised by act of Parliament, that body was induced in 1891 to pass a "fair-wages resolution" to the effect that in all Government contracts provision should be made for paying such wages "as are generally accepted as current in each trade for competent workmen." But it is true in England, as it is in every other state, that in no trade is there a rate of wages current throughout the country. There are different rates of wages for the same work, each current in a particular region, for the very good reason that the expenses of living and the cost of production are extremely variable factors. The same money wages in this country would have very different purchasing power in different sections, the result being that cost of production is equalized by not paying the same money wages everywhere. The same phenomenon exists in England, the wages of ship-builders in London being higher than those which prevail in the

northern counties. Hence, the Admiralty construed the parliamentary resolution to mean, not the rate of wages current everywhere in a trade, for there is no such rate, but the rate prevalent in the particular district where the contractor carried on his operations.

This construction suited neither the labor-unions nor the London ship-builders. What the labor-unions wanted was that the highest rate of wages anywhere paid should be taken as the rate current in each trade. The London ship-builders contended that the Government ought to make them an allowance on account of the higher wages which they were obliged to pay, just as our protectionists insist that Congress shall arrange the tariff so as to compensate American manufacturers for the high price of American labor. One of these ship-builders boldly demanded that the Government should give a bonus of £20,000 for every battle-ship built on the Thames, alleging that workmen could not be obtained for less than the rate now current, which made it impossible for London shipyards to compete with those of the north. Another admitted that men could be obtained for lower wages, but claimed that it was the obvious purpose of Parliament to keep wages up and not compel contractors to drive hard bargains with their laborers. He ingenuously maintained that as London paid nearly one-seventh of the national taxes, its workmen should receive their share of the national contracts, "and not be permanently estopped and handicapped from their legitimate occupation because the rates of wages in London are, and have been for many years, for good reasons, higher than those of the provincial outports." It must be said that this argument is not inconsistent with the theory of the fair-wages resolution, but the Parliamentary committee investigating the subject do not yield to it. On the other hand, they point out that the effect of the resolution is to exclude old soldiers and sailors from employment by Government contractors. The contractors say that they would be glad to give these men work, but that they cannot afford to pay them the wages of "competent" workmen, because they cannot earn such wages. The only result of this well-meant resolution seems, therefore, to have been to drive the old soldiers and sailors out of employment on public works—a result to which the labor-unions appear to be reconciled, but which is on almost every account deplorable.

President Krüger's flat denial that England has suzerain rights over the Transvaal is evidently intended as a challenge to Mr. Chamberlain. That gentleman remarked rather tartly in

the House of Commons the other day, when asked why England did not arbitrate her differences with the Transvaal, that no suzerain nation ever arbitrated disputes with a vassal country. Krüger now replies that the recognition of British suzerainty is not made, in precise terms, in the convention of 1884, though it had been in the superseded convention of 1881. He has to admit, of course, that the 1884 agreement restrains the Transvaal from concluding "a treaty or engagement with any state or nation other than the Orange Free State, or with any native tribe to the eastward or westward of the republic, until the same has been approved by her Majesty the Queen." This provision he means to live up to loyally, but it is not suzerainty. Chamberlain declares it is. So the dispute is only a verbal one, after all. Chamberlain says to Krüger, "You have got to live up to your agreements with me, your suzerain." Krüger replies, "I am going to live up to my agreements with you, confound you, but you are no suzerain at all." Still, disputes about words are often the bitterest and most dangerous of all, between men or nations. There is no doubt that Chamberlain will be made "very angry" by Krüger's defiance, as Flora Shaw said he was by one of Rhodes's impudent telegrams.

A curious piece of evidence bearing on the success of the English rule in India is furnished by the popularity of the courts established in that country and especially in Bengal. Litigation increases beyond the power of the existing force of judges to deal with it. Under the *par Britannica*, disputes can no longer be settled by the sword, and murders and raids and family vendettas are things largely of the past. But the natives have learned that they can carry on their quarrels through litigation, and the agricultural classes are especially pertinacious in asserting their legal rights over land and irrigation privileges. The peasants not only resort to the courts, but they are not satisfied with the decisions of the tribunals of first instance. The number of appeals has increased until it is now about 30 per cent. of the contested cases. There seems to be no way of stopping the initiation of legislation, which is evidently the outcome of the national character, but the Government finds it necessary to decrease the volume of appeals in petty cases in order that the higher courts may be able to give proper attention to really important matters. To allow such appeals, when the lower courts are of good character, tends more to the oppression of poor suitors by rich ones than to secure the rights of the feeble, and reforms are now proposed which shall effect a prompter administration of justice.

SURREPTITIOUS LEGISLATION.

Mr. Bagehot won much fame by pointing out that the British Constitution in its actual working was a very different thing from what it was described to be in the books. We need not look far to find evidence that a similar opportunity of obtaining distinction awaits some American observer. The fields are white for the harvest, and a plain account of how laws are not made and Senators not chosen by the Legislature, but by mysterious individuals and unknown bodies, would fill an interesting volume. But we must add the caution that the American observer will find it necessary to be very expeditious in publishing his results. We are a pushing people, and our political development is going on at a pace that may well make the panting philosopher toil after it in vain.

The discovery that discriminating duties of the most revolutionary character had been introduced into the tariff without the knowledge of the framers of that instrument, ought to open the eyes of the country to the dangers of continuing to legislate after our present manner. We have come to regard our legislatures as bodies that do not originate laws, but, like the Roman Senate in the time of the empire, merely register the edicts of the sovereign, or, as we call him, the Boss. We now see that these sovereigns of ours are not satisfactory legislative bodies. They have too many other things to look out for to be able to attend to the details of legislation. Meanwhile, the Legislature having abdicated as a deliberating body, the door is open for all sorts of laws, pushed by all sorts of influences, to slip into the statute books.

We have seen the results in the case of Congress, but we can find them in abundance in the legislation of the State of New York. Not very long since a vigorous attempt was made to adopt the code prepared by the late David Dudley Field. The legal profession was aroused and the project was defeated. But it now appears that the law has been to a considerable extent quietly codified without any pretence of discussion or of consulting the profession. It may be conceded at once that the law is susceptible of improvement, and that a body of learned jurists with Mr. Field's qualifications might restate it in a more convenient form. But the matter has been undertaken by a commission in the selection of whose members the legal profession had no part. Speaking moderately, we may say that this statutory revision commission has not been composed of very eminent jurists. It was originally a product of Gov. Hill's administration, and Gov. Hill did not dispose of offices without regard to personal or party considerations. The names of the members of this commis-

sion were and are unknown to the public, and even to many members of the legal profession. Had they confined themselves to their proper work, the orderly arrangement and classification of the statutes, they might have attained honorable distinction. But the temptation to state the law, not as it is, but as they think it ought to be, has proved irresistible, and as our legislators are, of course, too much absorbed in "politics" to be able to scrutinize the great volumes of revised statutes laid before them, the people find themselves suddenly living under a body of general laws not only formulated in new language, but also containing new principles.

Occasionally the propensity of this commission to make such laws as it saw fit has been rebuked. It got up some laws concerning corporations that were so outrageous as to compel their precipitate repeal by the Legislature, and its revisions have been already extensively revised. But many of its changes are not of a description to arouse public attention, and yet they may be of a revolutionary character and affect vast interests. It was provided in the Revised Statutes, after careful deliberation on the part of the great lawyers who had charge of the work, that any conveyance of real estate by a trustee in contravention of his trust should be void. The purpose of this provision is obvious. Men wish to protect their children and dependent relatives against want. They know that trustees may prove dishonest or incapable; that they may make bad investments, or convert personal property to their own use. But under this statute all danger from these causes could be averted, and numberless estates have been safely kept until the assigned period for their distribution.

For fifty years this law stood unchanged. Then the Legislature, perhaps for good reasons, authorized trustees to raise money by mortgage when the court was satisfied that such a course was necessary for the preservation or improvement of their estates. Soon after, the sale of such estates was authorized upon like conditions. The courts, however, were extremely cautious in the exercise of the power conferred upon them, and unless it was clearly made out that a case of necessity existed they refused all applications. Such conservatism did not please the Revision Commission, and, without warning to the public, they changed the law so as to make it necessary for a trustee only to make out a case showing that it was "for the best interest" of his trust estate that it should be sold in order to convert it into cash. It is easy to see what this might lead to. With the proper affidavits, the right kind of judge, and a lawyer with a "pull," it would not be hard for a trustee to prove a sale of real estate beneficial when there was no one interested to

prove the contrary. We do not now question the policy of this legislation. It may be that the creators of trust estates, employing as they generally do the wisest of counsel, are less fitted to decide whether they will have their lands convertible into money than their trustees and beneficiaries. They can create and limit powers of sale if they choose; and if they think it wiser not to do so, some will hold that they ought not to be interfered with. Be this as it may, it hardly admits of question that changes of this momentous nature, affecting the interests of classes peculiarly unable to care for themselves, should be made only after the most prolonged and thorough discussion. We are glad to see that this measure was amended by the last Legislature in some important respects.

This change was of a piece with the treatment of the law of real property by this commission. For over sixty years the Revised Statutes have contained the law on this subject substantially unmodified. Every doubtful point, every ambiguous word, in this body of law has been the subject of litigation and judicial interpretation. The language employed by the revisers may not have been altogether happy, but it had come to have an understood meaning. Like the errors in the authorized translation of the Bible, the dubious phrases of the Revised Statutes had become innocuous, and the result of the labors of the eminent scholars who lately undertook the retranslation of the Scriptures might have served as a warning to those who would overcome established usage.

But there is this difference between the cases. Those who prefer the old version of the Scriptures can continue to use it. Its familiar phrases and their accepted meaning can be cherished by those in whose memory they have become imbedded. But the unfortunate lawyer who knew by heart the precise language expressing all the main principles of our law of real property now finds this knowledge a delusion and a snare. The quicker he can forget it all and begin with the beginners in the profession, the better for him. He must go over the whole field, page by page, section by section, sentence by sentence, even word by word, for the slipping in of an "or" for an "and" may involve a matter of millions. This enormous burden appears to have been imposed in utter wantonness; it is an arbitrary and unprincipled exercise of irresponsible power. No lawyer worthy of his profession would ever consent to change the wording of a thoroughly construed organic statute if it could possibly be avoided; no matter with what skill the change is made, it always involves the substitution of a possibly doubtful meaning for one that is known. But the New York commission has gone through the law apparently on the principle of changing for the sake of change. Whole

pages may be cited where the wording of nearly every sentence has been altered, while it is quite likely that the commissioners would declare that they had no intention of modifying the meaning in the slightest degree. The mischief is done, and of course there is no help for it; but in the name of the orderly administration of the fundamental laws of property we can at least protest.

THE DOWNFALL OF A BOSS.

Senator Wellington is no longer the boss of the Republican party in Maryland. The party has until recently had little need of a boss in that State, which is normally Democratic, and its politicians are comparatively independent. Like the barons of feudal times, they are not disposed to concede absolute power to any superior potentate, and history shows that such power is established only gradually and by slow degrees. The barons apparently maintain their claims, but from time to time an able and ambitious king comes to the throne, and by politic measures enlarges the royal prerogative and transforms nominal fealty into actual submission. This change, as we have said, seems to have usually taken place imperceptibly, and the sovereign who has brought it about has been careful not to arouse opposition by openly proclaiming his purpose. Successful despots have in all ages found it wise to leave the semblance of free institutions to peoples whom they have enslaved, and our most successful political bosses have adopted this policy. Senator Wellington has been overthrown because he rejected it. His dynasty had not been consolidated by time or confirmed by success; nevertheless he acted as if his will was law, and, like many other weak rulers, found it was not.

We cannot say what the result of Senator Wellington's action might have been if he had not undertaken to lay down the principles of boss rule. It is reported that his followers in Baltimore conducted the primary conventions for the nomination of a mayor so unfairly that a majority of the Republican voters withdrew and held primaries by themselves. The candidate nominated by them thus represented majority rule, while the candidate nominated by Senator Wellington's adherents represented "regularity." Under such circumstances much adroitness and diplomacy was plainly necessary if the endorsement of the State convention was to be procured for the regular nominee. The spirit of rebellion and mutiny being aroused, conciliatory language should have been used, and, possibly, some concessions granted. Instead of pursuing this policy, Senator Wellington resorted to an arrogant assertion of irresponsible power, and, in effect, defiantly exclaimed, like Boss Tweed, "What are you going to do about it?"

In his opening address to the convention he used this language: "I claim that it is not only my right, but my duty, occupying the position I do, to exert what influence I have toward the end that fit nominations be made and suitable principles enunciated for the guidance of the Republican party. . . . I have never assumed authority that was not of right the prerogative of the position I hold. Custom has given certain consideration to Senators of the United States. These privileges I shall claim as my right so long as they are granted to others, and there shall be no infringement without my indignant protest." The Senator continued in this strain, openly declaring that he proposed to control appointments to office in Maryland, and that he should give them to his political supporters.

There can be no question that this is a correct account of the principles of boss-rule, although for a boss to state these principles openly is a violation of the highest principle of all, that of secrecy. However this may be, the public is to be congratulated on having the nature of what we call government by the people authoritatively explained to it. It may as well discard text-books of politics used in the schools and adopt Senator Wellington's statement of principles as containing the true explanation of the practical administration of our government. The Senators of every State—not the President of the United States, as laid down in the Constitution—constitute the appointing power. Our constitutional law may be summed up in this statement, and our party law is concisely formulated in the proposition that Senators are to enunciate the principles of the party, to select its nominees, and to give the offices to their political friends.

Some may be disposed to protest that the enunciation of principles has never been recognized as one of the prerogatives of a party boss, and it must be admitted that it is not easy, even with Senator Wellington's aid, to prove the existence of doctrines heretofore esoteric. But the objection is not important, because, when compared with offices, party principles are not important. However it may be with outsiders, active politicians care much more about candidates than about platforms. Platforms consist of abstractions and generalities; candidates stand for the concrete benefits of salaries and fees and contracts. Of course, the enunciation of principles is occasionally very important in attracting independent voters to the support of a particular party, and it may thus require the attention of the boss as affecting the permanency of his power. Beyond this, the enunciation of principles is a matter of indifference to him, and he would probably be willing to have them dispensed with altogether. Indeed, Senator Wellington's case is an

illustration of the danger to a boss that lurks in the profession of principles. Had he held his tongue about the principles of boss-rule, and not openly told the Republican politicians that they were his subjects, they might have continued to obey him. But the traditions of freedom are so recent in this country that even politicians resent the public advertisement of their subserviency, and the wise boss must be contented with the practical fidelity of his followers, without compelling them to do him open homage.

"THEORIES" OF PUBLIC EXTRAVAGANCE.

The official volume of "appropriations, new offices, etc., for the fiscal year of 1897-'98 has been compiled by the clerks of the House and Senate committees on appropriations, and an abstract of its summaries has been given to the press. Its main features are the following:

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| General appropriation acts | \$397,100,384 |
| Deficiency acts | 10,551,417 |
| Miscellaneous acts | 699,057 |
| Total | \$408,656,858 |
| Permanent annual appropriations | 120,078,221 |
| Making a total of appropriations of \$528,735,078 | |

The number of new offices and employments specifically authorized is 410, at an annual compensation of \$443,439, and the number omitted 134, at an annual compensation of \$157,697, making a net increase of 276 in number and \$285,742 in amount. The number of salaries increased is twenty, at an annual cost of \$6,814, and the number reduced two, at an annual cost of \$400. The total amount of contracts authorized requiring future appropriations by Congress is \$2,269,375."

When Chairman Cannon, at the close of the regular session, made the customary statement of appropriations, he put the total at \$518,103,458. The discrepancy of \$10,000,000 is partly accounted for by miscellaneous appropriations made by the extra session. The rest is amply explained by the hocus-pocus and understatement in which all chairmen of appropriations committees indulge, in order to avoid an appearance of extravagance. But if appropriations of \$518,000,000 were, as Mr. Cannon confessed they were, "in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service," we can be in no doubt what adjective to apply to appropriations of \$528,000,000. They are grossly extravagant. In view of the embarrassed condition of the Treasury, they are recklessly, almost criminally, extravagant. This is an old story now, but the swelling deficiencies of revenue under the Dingley bill make of it a story which we shall have to hear a great many times over, wearisome as it may become.

How to account for the great increase in public expenditures, especially for such deliberate extravagance as our Congress has been guilty of in recent years, is a puzzle to many public men. The guiltiest Congressmen themselves cannot understand it, they say. Some mysterious power gets hold of them and

makes them lavish of the public funds in spite of the most frugal and virtuous intentions. Economists have studied the phenomenon, and have got up grave theories to account for it. Some of these are referred to in the article on the subject in the *Yale Review* by the Italian writer, Signor Giuseppe Flamingo. Thus there is the explanation of Jevons and others that increased expenditures result from centralizing the powers of the state, and that this centralization arises from the economy of public works compared with private undertakings. This theory makes extravagance identical with real utility. Of course, the state ought to do its work more economically than an individual, just as a great corporation can reduce its cost of production as compared with a small firm. But does it? The inquiry as to the actual fact at once destroys the fancied utilitarian basis of increasing public expenditures. Such works are notoriously and demonstrably wasteful.

Another theory is that progressive appropriations of public money arise from extending the functions of government. The state is growing more conscious of itself and of its paternal duties. It benevolently undertakes to care for one new class after another of its hitherto neglected children. What all this really amounts to is only a statement of the problem in another form—the thing really requiring explanation is precisely why all these new fields for public outlay have been found and have been made such a drain on national resources. Were not Congresses conscious of being "paternal" before they began voting money in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service? A father is sometimes most paternal in severely cutting off the pocket-money of prodigal children. Paternalism, in this new view of the word, is only another name for spendthrift squandering.

All these shifts to avoid facing the acknowledgment of a decaying parliamentary government and of inexcusable extravagance in public expenditure, Signor Flamingo dismisses as "pure illusion." These economic abstractions have no counterpart in reality. There is no such thing as a "state," anxiously asking when a new function is proposed to it, "Would it be more advantageous to leave this function to free individual activity, or would the greatest advantage be derived from making it a public service?" The state, in the case supposed, is nothing more nor less than a group of scrambling politicians, eager to obtain and retain power, and perfectly aware that the best way to do it is to secure for themselves and their districts the greatest possible amount of public money on whatever pretext occurs to them. The real place to look for the increasing extravagance of parliaments and congresses is, as Signor Flamingo truly says, in their "make-up and me-

thods." One glimpse of the real appropriator at work is more illuminating than all the economic theories that can be devised to account for his lavish appropriations.

The average Congressman or member of the Legislature, with his average political career, furnishes a "theory" in his own person which beats the economists out of sight. Extravagance, he can say like Louis XIV., *c'est moi*. At every step in his political advancement, from Alderman to Representative, he has learned that the surest way of getting on is to get every cent possible out of the public treasury for his ward or district. The most certain way to beat a rival for the nomination is to promise to get more public money than he dares to. Every appropriation secured, every public building obtained, or river-and-harbor job put through, means renomination or promotion. This is what is meant by the increasing "pressure from the constituencies" over which Speaker Reed and Chairmen Cannon and Allison are so much disturbed. The real pressure is from candidates for office, who want to get delegates and nominations by means of grants from the Treasury. This is a sufficient working hypothesis to account for nine-tenths of the extravagance in our public expenditures. Economic reasoners need not lose themselves in their own inner consciousness to find an explanation of the mystery. Let them open their eyes and gaze upon the average Congressman, and all will be clear.

THE DECAY OF TOWN GOVERNMENT.

Prof. Norton's speech at the Ashfield dinner on the village hoodlum has attracted wide attention throughout New England; its delivery is really an important event. We have been accustomed for two generations to hear the government of New England towns—that is, town government in the most civilized part of the country—extolled as very nearly perfect. These towns were formerly taken by writers on government to represent democracy and equality in their best form; in fact, the New England town has been steadily pointed to as having proved the case of democracy, because it showed that a pure democracy, made up of farm-owners, nearly equal in station, could produce a state of society and government in which there was little or no crime, hardly any poverty, low taxes, complete safety for life and property, and general contentment. This was at one time a true picture, and that it should have been attributed directly to the town-meeting is not surprising when we reflect that the town was the fundamental political institution, and did provide pretty much all the governmental machinery with which most people came in contact. It was as purely a democratic institution as the

representative system has ever produced, for all the town officers, from selectmen to constables, were elected once a year by the votes of the entire community. Down to within twenty-five years, to question the excellence of New England town government would have seemed like questioning democracy itself, and the consequence was that any criticism of or inquiry into the actual condition of these towns and the government they provided was resented as a sort of impertinence. The proper attitude of mind was felt to be that of wonder that such a perfect thing should have been produced by man.

To say that this picture is no longer recognized as true would be a poor description of the change which has taken place. In these same town governments the very same system is found to produce to-day the very opposite results. There is plenty of crime and poverty, tramps infesting a community in which the word itself was once unknown, and village hoodlums, every one of them a potential criminal, preparing themselves for rape and murder by vagabond drinking; the taxes are unequal, and often the cause of great complaint; life and property are most insufficiently protected, and a state of great general dissatisfaction is reflected every day in the local press, and brought deliberately to the attention of the public at large by representative men.

Although the proof is not easy to get, it is generally believed that this state of affairs is closely connected with public corruption—not actual stealing, but that sort of petty pilfering or jobbery which prevails when the desire to peculate is tempered by the knowledge that the fund on which inroads can be made is not very large. It must be remembered, however, that the growing wealth of New England is continually bringing within the reach of the Village Tweed new money, especially in the thinly settled wilder portions of the country, filling up with millionaires and magnates from the city, who add to the taxable wealth of fine houses, stock farms, and other improvements, and who expect to be plundered a little. They sometimes provide a sort of police on their estates in their men-servants, but they take no more part in the government of the town than they do in that of Switzerland. They will all willingly admit, however, that there is apt to be a little "ring" in the town, and that the selectmen are suspected of profiting by contracts let by themselves.

When we ask what is to be done about all this, the answer is not simple, and, no doubt, the evil will only be slowly remedied. That it will be remedied we have no question, for the same reason that we have always believed that municipal government would be purified—because the evil is intolerable, and increasingly so. Plunder and misrule and

disorder and danger can no more prevail in the country than they can in town, unless civilization in the United States is to be extinguished.

The cure must come from the action of those who suffer from the disease, and it must come also through a recognition of the fact that a system of government which would do for such a community as New England was fifty years ago will not do for the same community as it is to-day, with its absentee wealth and its deteriorated suffrage. The "ring" in the village rests upon the same basis as it does in the city—a little rural machine of a few dozen voters who are supported by labor furnished by the town, and in return go to the town-meeting and keep in office the selectmen who furnish them support. They are a mere handful, generally outnumbered by the property-owners, who, however, stay at home and let them do it. These property-owners have the matter in their hands, and the misrule which exists is the measure of their indifference.

For good responsible government in a modern rural community an annual election of every single town officer by all the adult males would commend itself to few who have given any attention to the subject. They would say that for such a purpose the "head men" must have a decently long term of office, and that an elective constabulary is a farcical institution. But these difficulties can be overcome. In Massachusetts, for instance, the statutes already provide that towns may prescribe for their selectmen and assessors a three years' term, and within four years the same State has enabled them to set up a paid and armed police. In the town of Southampton, where a paid policeman was recently removed for enforcing the law, the trouble was not with the law, but with the selectmen, and if their action is ratified by their continuance in office, there is no redress. Behind the local community itself no one can go, unless affairs get so bad that the State should be called in to police the towns, in which case we have not the slightest doubt that it would be called in, for protection to life and property our race will have in some way.

The corruption in these governments can be broken up only in the same way as elsewhere—by resisting it, attacking it, and making those guilty of it pay the penalty. One of the largest property-owners and taxpayers in Lenox is reported to have brought a taxpayer's suit against one of the selectmen of that town, and if the matter has been correctly reported in the newspapers, the suit grows out of the practice of illegal giving by officials of contracts to themselves—a practice which produces corruption and waste as inevitably in Lenox as it does in New York, in a town as it does in a bank. Such a suit sounds the doom of the practice against which

it is directed, and what is wanted is more such suits. We hear a great deal nowadays about "civic spirit," which is, no doubt, a good thing, but it is not worth a postage-stamp unless it is based on private spirit and honest indignation at wrong and oppression. There is plenty of machinery in these towns to make their government what it ought to be. What is wanted is action.

A BICYCLE-RIDER IN EUROPE.

GENEVA, August 20, 1897.

I had got myself made a member of the Touring Club of France just before leaving home, and at Havre I was met by the badge of the club and by a plaque of identification to fasten upon the machine. These articles, enamelled in colors, are very pretty, and were rather the admiration of the ship. Plenty of other bicycles were hoisted out of the hold, but it happened that I was the only passenger who was to begin to wheel at once. As a member of the club you do not have to pay any duties on your machine. Two customs officers scrutinized my card of membership closely, the second coming to look at it after the first had finished; he explained apologetically that these cards were sometimes presented nearly in blank. They require to have your photograph in a corner, and to be filled up with the name of the Mayor of your town and various other particulars. They expect our Mayor to be a useful person and mix himself up with all the affairs of life, as he does in a French community. Advice to those hereafter who may be inclined to leave the card in the virgin state in which it comes from the American delegate, Col. Hesselton of Boston.

The Havre steamer arrives Sunday afternoon, and it was the season of the Pentecost fêtes besides, but I found a *mécanicien*, in the Cours de la République, who went to work in a business-like way to deliver the bicycle from the light wooden crate and the thick smearing of vaseline under protection of which it had crossed the ocean. Interested bystanders pronounced some parts of the machine, as they saw it develop, *chouette* (smart and taking), and others *rigolo* (funny or queer). A very common remark heard about the American wheels, as about many other American products, at present, is that they have *du cachet* (good style, distinction). The description is gratifying, of course; can it be that the tables are really turned? For this is precisely the quality we have always been attributing to things French. I began to notice at once, in fact, as I looked about me at the machines the dealer had in stock, while waiting for my own, that the foreign make of bicycles have a heavier, clumsier cut. Later experience soon led me to see, however, that much is to be said in favor of their greater solidity, as adapted to their peculiar conditions.

I left the dealer five francs and my crate, and started out into the open country. The foreign soil received hospitably the visitor from the other side of the world that rolled with light impact on its surface; even the cobble-paved streets were smooth, and the trolley tracks were sunk flush with the surface. Ten or fifteen miles on a little tour of exploration, and to see that all was working perfectly—it was nothing at all; and

what a surprise, what a pleasure, to thread in this easy way even the characteristic crooked alleys of the French villages which I had so often laboriously trod on foot. The next day along the coast for Trouville. Private and local fêtes were on at Honfleur, and it was almost impossible to get aboard the boat crossing the mouth of the Seine to that point. The spirit of the crowd was not at all favorable to the bicycle—"räle," they call it, contraction of velocipede, and the word in popular use—and it received more than one vicious push and even a wrenching at the spokes. Above Vassy I made my first acquaintance with one of the characteristic French hills. You are confronted with the notice, put up by the benevolent Touring Club: "Cyclists, attention! Rapid descent and dangerous turning." The road on these hills is as winding as the usual French road is mathematically, remorselessly straight; the surface is perfectly hard and even, and you get no assistance in holding back from the friction of any rough places. Suppose, in going down at a fast pace, you come—a very common incident—upon a string-team of draught-horses all spread out over the route, it is not so easy to get out of the scrape.

I had come over without a brake, and was riding, too, a seventy-six gear. I had been told that a brake was not obligatory here, and, indeed, it is not—you are quite at liberty to break your neck if you wish; but the question is, whether you wish. All around Paris, all over France, there are such hills, to say nothing yet of the mountains proper. Lesson number one, then, the very great, really the vital importance of having a brake.

I have journeyed alone usually; the only examples of "tramps" I recollect encountering were a couple I met at the mouth of a sequestered lane, just before Pennedepie Church. They were a sturdy pair, representing *Robert Macaire* and his aid *Jacques Strop* to the life. Macaire had a green patch over one eye and Strop had a crutch. They advanced, one before the other, and began to ask assistance for two unfortunate laborers out of work—mendicancy being forbidden, too, in the French communes. I trust I did not do injustice to two very worthy persons, but I sped on without attending at all to this petition.

Returning to Honfleur, I started for Paris by way of Rouen. Up to this time everything was working smoothly. A good many small flint-stones crackled under my wheels, but I was agreeably reassured; they seemed about as harmless as the cinders or gravel on one of our bicycle-paths. I had the wind with me, and was making great progress. The roads are good and even from side to side, and you do not have to fix your attention too exclusively on your way, but can look about you at the architecture and the landscape. I had made, say, fifty miles in all, when, at but five o'clock in the afternoon, at Pont-Audemer, with three good hours of daylight before me, I found a big nail, from a peasant's shoe, sticking in my main tire, and the tire was leaking from a score of small places besides. Impossible to find anybody in the town who could mend a single-tube tire; they understand nothing but the Dunlop or some French modification of it. The incident gave me an opportunity to make the acquaintance of the local delegate of the Touring Club. He was very polite. He told me about the temper of the

people towards the bicycle, which is improving, now that the postman, the *huissier*, and others begin to use it practically in the way of their work. He found me a jeweller, an ingenious person, who in general could mend anything, and between us we managed to heal the wound caused by the hob-nail from the shoe. But even then the condition of the tire was hopeless. I had to take the train for Paris and purchase a new one. Cost of that day's damages, exclusive of hotel bill, railway fare, and expressage on trunk, already sent on, say, 40 francs. I am bringing back the collapsed tire; whether it was originally defective or whether it was cut to pieces by the flints in the road has not yet been determined. The flints are precisely those used in the firelocks of our forefathers; they have the sharp cutting edges of broken glass or crockery, and the roads of much of France, including Paris, are mended with this pleasant material. Certainly outfitters at home who will let their clients come over with apparatus in a defective condition to this large Europe, where it proves to be so extremely difficult to get parts replaced or repairs made according to our own system, are very conscienceless. On the other hand, as many of them have not travelled abroad, it must be hard for them to realize how very different the state of things in Europe is. With all the talk about American machines abroad, and although you find many of them in the windows of the bicycle-shops that occupy almost the whole length of the Avenue de la Grande Armée, in Paris, up to the entrance to the Bois de Boulogne, the workmen and the salesmen are all French, or English at most, and you get no good, hearty American aid and comfort. The feeling is often that you are being *exploité* (imposed upon) in these establishments, as in many others.

The next accident that happened to me was to break a pedal-pin out at Ville d'Avray. Return by the train and a hunt all over Paris, which resulted, not in replacing simply the broken pin, but in having to buy a new pair of pedals. And again it was a lucky chance to find pedals of the same make, though well known at home; one dealer happened to have just a single pair, which had been sent over to him as a specimen. Later on, in the Riviera, there broke an end of the main axle, the crank-hanger. That was clearly a defect in the machine. There was an agent for the make I ride in London, but not nearer. I could hardly wait, two or three weeks, to get a new axle from him, so I had one forged at Nice; price 12 francs, and two days' delay in my plans. The "clumsiness" of foreign bicycles now began to take on a very different aspect. The tourists I first began to notice, on the northern coast, had thick, substantial, double-tube tires, often corrugated so as not to slip, stout, wide cranks, saddles with heavy springs, substantial brakes, liberal mud-guards, and often gear-cases. They were not pretty to look at, if you will, but they went rolling on through rain and shine. Our own manufacturers would do well to have less *cachet* and a good deal more conscience, or at least more good judgment as to the strength of materials.

I have had many other things to do, and have by no means been travelling on, but only *with*, a bicycle. The modest figure of 700 miles that my cyclometer now registers

includes much rolling around the streets of Paris and its environs; through the sequestered shades of the forest of Fontainebleau; Grenoble and its charming adjacent regions; over the pass southward to Nice; from Nice to Menton by the lower road and back by the upper; and now, latest, the charming run around Lake Leman. Chamonix and other Swiss excursions are still in prospect. In addition, I have constantly used the bicycle in practical fashion in the towns where I have stopped, so that there is to its credit in the expense account some saving in cab-fares. It has knocked about a good deal by railway, without being crated (for who could bother taking a clumsy crate with him in such journeying?), but thus far it has met with no serious damage. This is a wonder to me, too; for, although it may be a simple enough matter for the man in the baggage-car to give your bicycle a good, safe place in the beginning, he has to put off and take in a lot of baggage at each new station, and he must have to push it about and rearrange it a great deal. Owing to various conditions I have indicated, I am not at all certain that it would not be better for those to whom expense is an object to hire bicycles on this side of the ocean, instead of bringing over their own. The prices, as I have demanded them, vary from 80 or 100 francs a month on the Avenue de la Grande Armée to 50 francs or less in a more modest part of Paris, and to 40 or possibly less in smaller cities like Grenoble and Geneva. "But you would not get a good one," somebody interposes with vigor. "Softly there," I am inclined to reply; "all bicycles are good; the only difference is that some are better than others." I have come to have plenty of respect for the foreign bicycles; they get over the ground at as great a pace as our own; they are comfortable, and they are safe.

The wheeling excursion I took that offered the best occasion for character-study and human interest was a *Rallie-Papier*, or paper-chase, a run on the principle of fox and hounds, with the Touring Club of France, in the forest of Saint-Germain. The course was fifteen miles, a hard one, too, with many stiff hills in it, and then there was fifteen or twenty miles more to Neuilly-le-Château, where a gay breakfast was taken in the open air. There were more than 200 riders, a considerable number of them women. In the forest many false leads were given, and it was entertaining to see eager groups going and coming swiftly on all four branches of a cross-roads at once. After breakfast there were some amusing games, jostling at rings with canes or umbrellas for lances, and the like. All passed off with great humor, and many of the pet terms invented for the bicycle were heard. The tire is a *pneu* (pneumatic, the "p" strongly pronounced); the smart name for the machine itself is a *bécane*, which means something like "nag" or "hobby-horse." If you get a tumble, you *ramasser une pelle*—that is, you "pick up a shovel." The women invariably wear knickerbockers, and, when dismounted, they go about with their hands in their pockets, in a good-fellow sort of way. The costume is not bad on the wheel, but on foot it is rather waddling. The men have some extraordinary jerseys, but in addition to that they adopt, almost like a uniform, trousers and cap of black and white check and black stockings. If they mean to be very elegant, they add white

gloves. All mount much lower than we do, so that when the start was given, the contestants were simply straddling their machines with one foot on the ground. If toe-clips (*fixe-pieds*) are used, they just clear the surface.

What I may call my most dramatic and moving excursion was the dragging a fagot, or clog, down the abrupt mountain descent on the journey to the Grande Chartreuse. I had always wanted to try dragging the fagot. I started with an agreeable companion, Prof. Santis of Grenoble. We took the diligence at 5 o'clock in the morning, and, after five hours' climb, alighted on the Col de Porte, the pass about 4,500 feet high. Thence there is a run of about eight or ten miles down to the Hôtel du Désert, from which point you climb again to the Chartreuse. My companion was a practical mountain-rider, but he, too, had only heard of going down steep inclines with the aid of a clog, and had never personally tried it. As he was a professor of physics, he was just the one, I claimed, to make a careful computation of our weights and all the other conditions, and so adjust the clogs we needed with entire accuracy. We dispensed, however, with these elaborate preparations. A cantonnier, or road-mender, fitted us out with two large dried branches—we tied them on behind the bicycles, and started. The grade is extremely stiff, part of the way as much as ten per cent; it seemed to me a good deal like going down stairs. The professor of physics was soon gayly lost to sight in front. I essayed to go on more slowly, but my machine carried much more *avoirdupois* than his, and I was soon aware that I was being run away with, in spite of my dragging pine-branch. In the meantime, I may explain, I had had a brake put on my machine, a light graceful one, acting on the rear wheel. It had the disadvantage that you had to let go one hand to get hold of it, and besides it was not effectual in a pinch like the present. Such mountain roads are built only by a system of sharp zig-zags, and if you cannot slack up at one of these sharp turns, you are in danger of going over and landing on the roof of a chalet in the valley, half a mile below, to the astonishment, no doubt, of the inmates. However, I had only the bare intimation of such a romantic fate and escaped the reality; I got off free from harm, within a few feet of the verge. I rejoined my sanguine professor of physics—he added the weight of his pine-branch to mine, got another for himself, and again we started. But the cords with which our clogs were fastened on were only small twine; I could not help being a little nervous, from the reflection that this might snap at a critical moment, and a descent upon the chalets or the church-steeple below still be in store. It was only on long, comparatively straight stretches that I really enjoyed the motion; then it was decidedly exhilarating. The trailing boughs occupied the whole width of the road, and raised a cloud of dust. We must have passed like some witches' ride. My fagot, too, made a great roaring; when I passed along by the cataracts, I was inclined to say to myself: "Tiens! there's something that's trying to set up a competition with me."

Arrived at last at the Grande Chartreuse, we fell in with a French bicyclist, who announced that an edict was out against riding with the fagot; he had had it from one of the stage-drivers, and was disconcerted in his

plans thereby! I suspect it was only the invention of the stage-driver himself, who opposed the fagot because it scared his horses and raised such an infernal dust.

WILLIAM HENRY BISHOP.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MATHEMATICIANS.

ZURICH, August 13, 1897.

Two or three years have passed since the desire felt by many mathematicians for opportunities of meeting with those of other nationalities, in some way that should be free from the inconvenience and small satisfaction attending a formal round of visits, found expression in the suggestion that an International Congress be held at suitable intervals. The suggestion met with ready approval, and it was decided to act upon it. For the first meeting, Paris presented itself as a suitable place, with its claim as the originator of the idea amply supported by the scientific rank of the French mathematicians; but the year 1900, the year of the Exhibition, offered such opportunities for a congress that it was determined to hold the first in 1897 in Zurich, the most central and international spot available, assigning to Paris the congress of 1900. Accordingly, in May of the present year, a committee of organization, composed mainly of the mathematical faculty of the Federal Polytechnic School and Cantonal University of Zurich, issued a circular of invitation and information, summoning the Congress for the 9th, 10th, and 11th of August. Much of the success of the first meeting must be ascribed to the labors of this committee, which made such ample and well-proportioned provision for carrying out the first article of the constitution, in which the objects are presented as four-fold, viz., (a) to promote personal relations between the mathematicians of different lands; (b) to give, by means of reports and lectures, a general view of the condition of the various branches of mathematics, and to afford the opportunity of treating certain questions of acknowledged importance; (c) to deliberate on the problems and organization of succeeding congresses; (d) to undertake questions of bibliography, terminology, etc., where an international agreement is necessary.

The felicitous choice of the place gave the meeting a truly international character. Not enumerating the ladies whose connection with mathematics was simply by marriage, but including the few that attended as mathematicians, the number of participants by the evening of the first day was 200, divided as follows among the different countries: Switzerland 53, Germany 40, France 25, Italy 19, Russia 18, Austria-Hungary 16, United States 7, Sweden 6, Denmark 4, Belgium, England, and Holland 3 each, Greece, Portugal, and Spain 1 each. It must always be expected that the country in which the meeting is held will provide the greatest number of attendants; as to the other numbers given, paying due regard to geography, these may be considered fairly representative, except as to the two English-speaking countries. The ten members from these were kept busy explaining that this inadequate representation was due to the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, just about to take place at Toronto. This excuse, valid for one congress, is now worn threadbare, and it is to be hoped that it will not be necessary

to discover an equivalent for the next congress, but that America and England will see to it that their numerical representation at the Paris congress be a truer indication of the strength of their work.

The opening meeting of the Congress was appointed for nine o'clock on the morning of August 9, but, for the sake of promoting friendly intercourse from the first, a social gathering took place in the Tonhalle on the previous evening. All that day, in a gray Swiss rain, mathematicians arrived, to the great interest of the inhabitants of Zurich, who turned out in large numbers to inspect; apparently it was supposed that the "Mathematiker" were nearly, if not quite, identical with the "forest-bred performing lions" whose impending arrival and promised performances were announced by posters all over the town. But after the first day not even the red and white button, the open sesame to all that the committee had provided, excited any special interest. "Etes-vous Mathematiker?" inquired the truly international porter at the railway station, and then conducted us to the office of the committee of organization, conveniently established in the station. Here many of the members of the committee attended to the necessary business of distributing programmes, enrolling members, and receiving the members' fee of \$5. The evening was devoted to the social gathering, where the groups of different nationalities were gradually broken up and intermingled; the difference in language did not seem to impose any barrier to friendly intercourse, though it was noticeable that French was the most general medium of conversation. It was stated later on, by some of the members of the general committee, that diversity of interest within the general domain of mathematics had been really more difficult to allow for than diversity of language.

At the appointed time on the following morning the Aula of the fine building which is the home of the Polytechnic School, was full to the last seat. Prof. Geiser, in the name of the committee of organization, welcomed the Congress to Zurich, referring to the historical importance of Switzerland in mathematics, due to the Bernoullis, Euler, and Steiner. He welcomed the members of the Congress as devoted to the disinterested pursuit of pure science, and, therefore, living in a spiritual world on which the sun never sets. The first business before the Congress was the nomination of a general committee. With a respectful reminiscence of the tower of Babel, the regulations provide that scientific communications may be made in English, French, German, or Italian, the publication of such communications to be in the language of the author, but that the deliberations and resolutions of the Congress may be published in French and German, each of these languages being therefore represented by a secretary, qualified to act as interpreter when necessary. After the nomination of Prof. Geiser as President, with MM. Franel and Rudio as Secretaries, four honorary secretaries, representative of the four languages, were chosen, viz.: MM. Pierpont (Yale), Borel (Paris), E. von Weber (Munich), Volterra (Turin), and the committee was completed by MM. Brioschi (Milan), Hobson (Cambridge), Klein (Göttingen), Mertens (Vienna), Mittag-Leffler (Stockholm), Picard

(Paris), Poincaré (Paris, absent), H. Weber (Strassburg). A report was then presented by Prof. Rudio, in the name of the committee, on the purpose and constitution of the Congress.

In addition to this formal business of organization, two addresses were delivered on mathematical questions. To the great regret of all present, M. Poincaré was detained in Paris by a family bereavement, and consequently was not able himself to deliver his address, "Sur les rapports de l'analyse pure et de la physique mathématique"; it was therefore read by M. Franel. Prof. Hurwitz gave a finely proportioned account of the "Entwicklung der allgemeinen Theorie der analytischen Funktionen in neuerer Zeit," including, however, in the "allgemeine Theorie" all such insignificant trifles as analytical geometry. This concluded the business of the opening session; and for the remainder of the day the Congress devoted itself energetically to the first of its four aims. At one o'clock the members sat down to an elaborate banquet in the Tonhalle, diversified by the usual speech-making, and by such pleasing episodes as the sending of greetings to the veterans Cremona and Hermite, both unable to be present. From this an adjournment was made to a gayly decorated steamer, for the programme of the day included a trip on the lake. Two hours of quiet enjoyment brought us to Rapperswyl, the loveliest spot on the lake, with its old castle on the height above the little town—in the courtyard of the castle the monument to Poland, erected "on the free soil of Switzerland" by a Polish exile; there we strolled about until the time appointed for the return to Zurich. We were to have reached Zurich in the midst of a Venetian fête—a characteristic amusement of the gay little town consisting of a procession of illuminated boats, with the accompaniment of fireworks and illuminations along the shore; but, owing to the threatening weather, this part of the programme was postponed to the following evening, when it was carried out with great success.

Tuesday was devoted to the presentation of papers in the separate sections. These sections, with their officers (President, Vice-President, Secretary) were as follows: I., *Arithmetic and Algebra*, Mertens (Vienna), Peano (Turin), Amberg (Zurich); II., *Analysis and Theory of Functions*, Picard (Paris), Brioschi (Milan), Jaccottet (Lutry); III., *Geometry*, Reye (Strassburg), Segre (Turin), Künzler (Zurich); IV., *Mechanics and Mathematical Physics*, Jung (Milan), Zhukovsky (Moscow), Flatt (Basle); V., *History and Bibliography*, Moritz Cantor (Heidelberg), Laisant (Paris), Schoute (Groningen). Naturally the papers that excited most interest were those presented by the best-known mathematicians; and as the sittings of the different departments, though not absolutely coincident in point of time, yet unavoidably overlapped, many members passed from section to section for the sake of hearing H. Weber ("Über die Genera in algebraischen Zahlkörpern"), Gordan ("Resultante ternärer Formen"), Brioschi ("Sur une classe d'équations du cinquième degré résolubles algébriquement et la transformation du onzième ordre des fonctions elliptiques"), Picard ("Sur les fonctions de plusieurs variables, et en particulier les fonctions algébriques"), Reye ("Neue Eigenschaften des Strahlenkomplexes zweiten

Grades"), Zeuthen ("Isaac Barrow et la méthode inverse des tangentes"). The limit of half an hour imposed on the papers, and enforced with more or less rigor under different presidents, enabled the sections to complete their labors by a late hour in the afternoon, and on Wednesday morning the Aula was again crowded for the concluding meeting. Letters of greeting were read from Cremona, Hermite, and others. Resolutions were adopted that the International Congress of Mathematicians should meet at intervals of from three to five years, in different countries, and that each congress should name at its closing session the date, place, and society in charge of the next meeting. The formal announcement was then made that the next congress would meet in 1900 in Paris, and that its organization was entrusted to the Mathematical Society of France. Questions concerning general reports on the progress of mathematics, and the formal adoption of some scheme of classification, are as yet hardly ripe for more than inquiry; consequently no binding action was taken with respect to these; it is left to the Paris Congress to adopt some definite procedure, with the help of the information that will then be available. Resolutions were, however, presented looking to the formation of standing committees for the purpose of dealing with these matters. Thus the conclusions arrived at, as befits the interim character of the Congress of Zurich, relate mainly to the organization of the series of congresses, without definitely committing the Congress to any particular line of action.

As at the opening general meeting, the business brought forward alternated with mathematical addresses. M. Peano gave an account of the "Logica Matematica," his Herculean attempt to persuade the mathematical world to adopt a purely symbolic mode of expressing its reasoning. Several printed pages of formulæ, apparently stenographic Russian, were distributed among the audience, but in vain did Prof. Peano appeal by name to distinguished members to attempt to read these formulæ. In an amusing contrast to this attempt to divest mathematics of all literary interest was the address by Prof. Klein, the apostle of sweetness and light in mathematics, "Zur Frage des höheren mathematischen Unterrichtes," with which the proceedings in the Polytechnic were brought to a close.

The members then assembled at the station of the Uetliberg Railway, where two special trains were in readiness. Half an hour's steep ascent brought us to the hotel near the top of the mountain, where the concluding banquet was held. The return to Zurich was by any of the ordinary trains, and many of us took advantage of this arrangement to remain on the Uetliberg till 10 P. M., watching the sunlight fade away from the Bernese Oberland, stretched out before us in its mighty magnificence, and then turning to see the moon, nearly full, rise over Mont Glärnisch. This was the final act of the proceedings, for on Thursday the mathematicians were dispersed in all directions, leaving Zurich in a steady rain, which simply emphasized our good fortune in the matter of weather; for with the one exception of a sudden rough cold wind which disarranged the Monday evening plans, and caused the Southerners to sigh for the warmth of their own lands, the three days of the Congress were perfect.

And how about the results? To what extent did the Congress realize its ends?

The members evidently felt that the time was short, and they wasted none of it, but worked diligently at making the acquaintance of one another. Occasional reminiscences of past disagreement, personal and international, there might be; but the most obvious and impressive thing was the general air of good fellowship and cordiality that prevailed among these comparative strangers, brought together simply by community of abstract intellectual interest. Strolling among the groups, one found Brill and Noether submitting to a kodak, Zeuthen illustrating a remark by a curve hastily drawn on the smokestack of the steamer, Brioschi winning the hearts of the younger generation by his chivalrous, courteous comprehension, Segre explaining the present marked geometrical tendency in Italian work. The social results of this international gathering were obvious; the indirect scientific results will probably be more valuable than the direct ones, though less easy to appraise justly. The mathematician is unavoidably comparatively isolated, for in any average university there is not room for two of a kind; and if the part of his science that he loves best be intellectually unfashionable, his solitariness may result in depression and stagnation. To estimate the indirect scientific results it would be necessary to measure the stimulus that each receives.

As to the direct scientific results, it rests with future congresses in the series now inaugurated to organize undertakings that shall place beyond all dispute the utility of such gatherings. So far as the mere communication and publication of memoirs is concerned, the Congress affords opportunities differing very little from those presented by the mathematical periodicals; its special scientific *raison d'être* will be found in the promotion of undertakings whose final success depends on concerted action rather than on individual effort. It will be its province to encourage and supervise the preparation of extensive reports on the general progress of mathematics, exercising due care that these preserve a sufficiently international character, and parcelling out the ground in such a way that the collection of reports may form the material for a general history of the mathematics of the period. With its assistance a much-needed universal agreement may be arrived at in the matter of bibliography and classification, towards which so much has been done by the "Commission Permanente du Répertoire Bibliographique des Sciences Mathématiques," ably seconded by the Mathematical Society of Amsterdam through the medium of its indispensable *Revue Semestrielle des Publications Mathématiques*. This question of classification was discussed with a good deal of warmth and interest, and it will be necessary for the Congress to come to some decision at its next meeting, formally recognizing some scheme of classification and lending its support to some bibliographical undertaking.

The question of giving to the series of detached meetings some permanence of character, some organic continuity, will doubtless be considered in 1900, even if it be impossible so early in the series to formulate any means for attaining this desirable end. But whether the congresses are ultimately detached gatherings, or periodic

manifestations of a central permanent organization, they will be linked together in the memories of the members by the new friendships then formed, the old friendships then renewed.

S.

Correspondence.

THE NEW FRENCH DOCTORATE OPEN TO AMERICANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have, at various times, published notes and correspondence on the movement in France, aided and encouraged by a committee of American educators, to make the universities of France more accessible and attractive to American students. The main point aimed at has now been gained by the establishment of a University Doctorate, open to students of any nation, France included, and granted on conditions not dissimilar to those required in America and Germany. I am not yet advised what other degrees than that of Doctor of Science are included in the arrangement, but any student desiring to avail himself of the advantages now offered may get further information by addressing Mr. Henry Bréal, 70, Rue d'Assas, Paris. Some details are also given in the following letter from M. Michel Bréal, Member of the Institute, and Chairman of the French Committee.—Very respectfully,

S. NEWCOMB.

WASHINGTON.

PARIS, 20 juillet, 1897.

Monsieur et cher Collègue :

J'ai l'honneur de vous faire connaître un premier et important résultat qui a été obtenu. Je vous serai très obligé de le porter à la connaissance de vos collègues du Comité Franco-américain de Washington.

Jusqu'à présent l'obtention du titre de *Docteur* était subordonnée en France à de telles conditions qu'il était bien difficile à des étrangers de l'obtenir. Même beaucoup d'étudiants français en étaient empêchés, quoique possédant les connaissances et la capacité nécessaires.

Ces conditions étaient de deux sortes: (1) la capacité scientifique; (2) l'obligation de présenter un certain nombre de diplômes (baccalauréat, licence) préalablement obtenus.

Dans sa dernière session, le Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique a décidé que les universités françaises pourraient créer un *Doctorat purement scientifique*, pour lequel les diplômes de bachelier et de licencié ne seraient pas exigés.

Ce doctorat, au point de vue scientifique, ne devra pas être moins sérieux que l'autre; mais on sera libre d'y laisser présenter des candidats qui n'auront pas fait toutes leurs études en France, ou qui, les ayant faites, n'auront pas jugé utile d'acquérir les diplômes précédemment mentionnés.

Ce doctorat s'appellera *doctorat universitaire*, pour le distinguer par un nom spécial. Il ne donnera pas, comme l'autre, le droit d'exercer des fonctions en France. Mais les universités ont intérêt à ce que le niveau scientifique n'en soit pas abaissé. Le Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique est d'ailleurs chargé de veiller à ce qu'il garde sa valeur. Les étudiants français, comme étrangers, pourront l'acquérir.

Vous voyez, mon cher Collègue, que le principal obstacle que vous me signifiez vient d'être levé. Il ne nous reste maintenant qu'à souhaiter de voir les étudiants américains user de la faculté qui leur est donnée. Je n'ai pas besoin d'ajouter qu'on leur fera bon accueil. Droit, médecine, sciences, lettres, tous nos cours leur sont ouverts.

Veuillez agréer, je vous prie, l'assurance de mes sentiments bien dévoués. MICHEL BRÉAL, Président de la branche française du Comité Franco-américain.

A NEW PARTY AND A NEW NAME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I cannot at all take the view of Mr. Whitman in your issue of August 19 as to a new name for the much-needed new party. In the first place, it is still practically true that the newly-formed Republican party of '54 took a new name; for though the word Republican had been used more than once in American politics, having been borne, though with declining emphasis, by the Democratic party since 1792, and again adopted as "National Republican" by the protective wing of that party in 1828, to give way, however, in 1833 to the name Whig, yet in 1854 it was forgotten, and so virtually a new name. It is safe to say that not one in fifty of the new generation of voters had ever thought of or known the slavery party as anything but the "Democratic" party, and this in spite of the fact that its posters still bore, above the symbol of the sledge-bearing arm of the workman, the legend, "Democratic-Republican." The fight for years had been between *Whig* and *Democrat*, and when the former proved unequal to the struggle in the cause of liberty, a new movement, *with a new name*, was born, to rally to it the nobler elements of both the old parties.

So-to-day we want not only a new party, but a new name for it, as earnest that it is a new party. We are done with both the old parties, twin Lucifer in their common infidelity to the trusts confided to them and to the splendor of their sometime record. "A plague on both your houses!" we would cry with the devoted souls of '54. The name *Democratic* has been as much polluted for any present use in the new cause as the name *Republican*. Give us a new name! Shall it be Commonwealth party, or the People's party, or the National party, or shall it be a name struck out by some happy accident or inspiration to recall and signalize the common honor and the common benefit to which both the old parties have grown callous? Time will decide, but give us, we pray, not only a new party, but a new name for it.—Respectfully yours, C.

GOVERNEUR, N. Y., August 27, 1897.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s fall announcements include the tenth and concluding part of the late Prof. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads,' put to press by Prof. G. L. Kittredge; 'Old Virginia, and her Neighbors,' in two volumes, closing with Washington's first appearance in history, by John Fiske, whose 'Critical Period of American History (1783-1789)' is to be reissued with rational illustrations; 'The Westward Movement: The Struggle for the Trans-Alleghany Region, 1763-1797,' by Justin Winsor, fully mapped; 'Colonial Mobile,' an historical study, by Peter J. Hamilton; 'France under Louis XV,' by James Breck Perkins; a Life of Mrs. Stowe, by Mrs. James T. Fields; 'The Life and Times of Edward Bass, First Bishop of Massachusetts (1726-1803),' by Daniel D. Addison; 'A Correspondence between John Sterling and Ralph Waldo Emerson,' edited by Edward Waldo Emerson; 'Hawthorne's First Diary,' edited by Samuel T. Pickard; 'A Dictionary of American Authors,' by Oscar Fay

Adams; 'The Memorial to Robert Gould Shaw: Its Inception, Completion, and Unveiling'; a second series of Victor Hugo's Letters, edited by Paul Meurice; 'Gleanings in Buddha-Fields,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'Gondola Days,' by F. Hopkinson Smith, with his own illustrations; 'Tuscan Songs,' by Esther Frances Alexander, with 108 photogravure copies of the peculiar illustrations from the pencil of the translator; 'The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome,' by Rodolfo Lanciani; 'An Evolutionist's Theology,' by Lyman Abbott, D.D.; 'Nineteenth-Century Questions,' by the late James Freeman Clarke, D.D.; 'Inequality and Progress,' by George Harris, D.D.; 'The Story of Jesus Christ: An Interpretation,' by Elizabeth Phelps Ward; 'Varia,' by Agnes Repplier; 'Talks on the Study of Literature,' by Prof. Arlo Bates; 'Nature's Diary,' a year-book compiled by Francis H. Allen; 'Birds of Village and Field,' by Florence S. Merriman; Burns's Complete Poetical Works, Cambridge (one-volume) edition; 'Poems Now First Collected,' by Edmund Clarence Stedman; 'The Story of an Untold Love,' by Paul Leicester Ford; 'Aaron in the Wildwoods,' by Joel Chandler Harris; 'King Arthur and the Table Round,' from the French of Chrétien de Troyes, by W. W. Newell; the third supplement (vol. iv.) to 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature'; together with a popular edition of C. P. Cranch's blank-verse translation of Virgil's 'Aeneid,' illustrated editions of Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' Thoreau's 'Walden,' and Charles Dudley Warner's 'Beating a Boy.'

Henry Holt & Co. will bring out 'The Federalist,' edited by Paul Leicester Ford; 'The Italians of To-day,' by René Bazin, translated by William Marchant; 'Journey through France,' by H. Tajne, and a new four-volume edition of his 'English Literature,' with portraits; 'An Introduction to American Literature,' by Henry S. Panceast; 'The Non-Religion of the Future,' from the French of M. Guyau; 'The Evolution of the Idea of God,' by Grant Allen; 'The Evolution of the Aryan,' by Rudolph von Ihering; 'An Outline Introductory to Kant's Critique of the Pure Reason,' by Prof. R. M. Wenley of the University of Michigan; and 'Selections from Matthew Arnold's Prose,' by Lewis E. Gates of Harvard.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish Baron Coubertin's 'Evolution of France under the Third Republic,' translated by Miss Hapgood; the sixth volume of Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire'; 'Gen. Grant's Letters to a Friend,' edited by Gen. J. G. Wilson; and 'Ballads of Yankee Land,' by William Edward Penney.

A revised and enlarged edition of Nathan Haskell Dole's variorum edition of the 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám,' is in the press of L. C. Page & Co., Boston. Original drawings by E. H. Garrett and other illustrations will form a part of the novelty.

Roberts Bros. will have ready in October 'The Quest of Happiness,' by the late Philip Gilbert Hamerton; and will also soon bring out a translation, by Prof. E. S. Grosvenor of Amherst, of Theodore Xenos's historical novel, 'Androniké, the Heroine of the Greek Revolution.'

The New Amsterdam Book Co. promise "The Sixties" (1855-1870), by Gleeson White, with numerous illustrations in etching, etc., after leading English artists of

the period; 'The Actor's Art,' a symposium edited by J. A. Hammerton; 'Women Novelists of Queen Victoria's Reign'; 'Papers by Charles Dickens,' now first collected by Frederic G. Kitton; and 'An Irregular Corps in Matabele Land,' by Lieut.-Col. Plumer.

Palmer & Co., Chicago, and E. R. Herick & Co., New York, issue jointly 'The Old House, and Other Poems and Sketches,' by Grace Duffie Boylan.

'Famous Problems of Elementary Geometry,' from the German of F. Klein by Profs. W. W. Beman and D. E. Smith, is announced by Ginn & Co.

Gen. Edward McCrady of Charleston has completed the first volume of a History of South Carolina, which he will publish if assured a sufficient number of subscriptions. This volume will end with the overthrow of the Proprietors' Rule in 1719.

Without being an enemy to books and their increase, we can but rejoice that the new budget of catalogues, 'The Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1897,' requires an even smaller space on our shelves than the last which it displaces. We have noticed ere this, with some regret, that the bulkiness of their lists has constrained certain publishers to furnish for this purpose a *select* catalogue, and otherwise to condense. The invaluable Annual now completes its quarter-century.

The University Publishing Co., in their "Standard Literature Series" for schools, have undertaken abridgments of Swift, Scott, Cooper, Bulwer, and other novelists, and have made extracts, for the sake of Little Nell and Paul Dombey, from the works in which these characters occur. Messrs. Appleton have gone further, in the case of Dickens, and have condensed 'The Story of Oliver Twist' for their "Home Reading-Books," which are also designed for schools. We cannot deem this a service to the schools at least, which have enough to do to teach a pure English style, equally removed from colloquy and from slang. And would not a pupil fresh from the gutter, on seeing Cruikshank's designs of thieves and murderers, court scenes and vulgar kitchen scenes, here reproduced, think he had in hand the familiar literature of the slums?

The real interests of education have been considered in Johnson's Life of Pope, edited by Kate Stephens and published in good shape by Harper & Bros., and in the comely selection of 'Poems and Essays from the Writings of Ralph Waldo Emerson' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.).

Mr. Verner Z. Reed's 'Tales of the Sun-Land' (Continental Publishing Co.) is slovenly in style, and is noticeable only for its careful corroboration of the untrue and the absurd. There is room between circumstantial fiction and the pseudo-circumstantial. Mr. Reed's story of "Don" Francisco Casca comes dangerously near the latter; and it is not his only leaning that way. He declares that this wholly absurd tale is proved by "the records left by Vasquez de Coronado," and by a Spanish inscription in the cañon of the Colorado; that it is "a record wrested from that silent . . . desert land." This is overstepping license. Mr. Reed plainly knows as little of the records of "Castenada" (sic) as of the expedition and its leader. Nothing could be more unwittingly humorous than the sketch of Coronado—except Mr. Reed's general notions of Arizona geography, and his fundamental ignorance of character among the

Indians and Mexicans he pretends to picture. A few names and terms picked blind-fold from some book or some camp-following Ute he unflinchingly naturalizes in every native vocabulary with which he has to do between Colorado and Yucatan; even as he puts Spanish (his version of Spanish) in the mouths of New Mexican tribes before Columbus. It is not so culpable that Mr. Reed knows nothing intrinsic of the Pueblos and their neighbors: he follows in the footsteps of more or less illustrious predecessors. But none who knew so little has matched his craft in seeming to know all. The illustration, by L. Maynard Dixon, is, despite some curious anachronisms, much the most creditable part of the book.

"The Duodecimos," faithful to their name, have preserved the form of their first venture ('Poor Richard's Almanack for 1733'), but have greatly increased the bulk in their second, 'The Poems of Anne Bradstreet' (1612-1672). The editing has been wise in that none of the early faulty editions has been slavishly followed, but the text has been modernized, so that if one now wishes for historical or other reasons to read the verse of the "Tenth Muse," it can be done with ease. The age of Mrs. Bradstreet produced, on this side of the water, nothing from the male sex in the way of poetry to make the Rev. Nathaniel Ward's doubts whether a woman could have written her pieces seem like flattery. Her learning, no doubt, counted for something in this astonishment. Moreover, she was to be the ancestress of the poets Dana and Holmes, and a kinswoman of Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, who furnishes a pious introduction of a very charming kind, and has lent one of the Dudley portraits for reproduction with the others that adorn this volume, including Gov. Bradstreet, Gov. Winthrop, John Cotton, Du Bartas (Mrs. Bradstreet's great model), etc. The book is beautifully manufactured in the prescribed edition of 144 copies.

The late volumes in the series "Pour les jeunes filles" (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.) are a singular contrast in the material offered to young girls. 'M. le Neveu,' by Jean Thierry, is bright and clear, with a determined action, and is written in very pretty French. The fresh young girl, Dilette, is much alive, and would be a healthy acquaintance for any one. We rather begrudge the title of the book to the excellent but dull "M. le Neveu." The other volume, 'Les Trois Filles de Pietor Waldorp,' is slow, uncertain in aim, and heavy and stilted in language. It can easily be put with another work of the same author, Jean Bertheroy, 'Le Double Joug,' which is one of the books to be put quickly in the fire. This, be it understood, is not in the same series—it is for quite a different audience; but how can readers be found for such writing? It has no purpose, and is excessively irritating because of the utter weakness of the characters.

With joy and relief one turns to 'Fédor: Pages de la Vie' (E. Flammarion), knowing that M. Alphonse Daudet will give us an artistic presentation of anything, however slight. And so it is, in spite of the somewhat lugubrious subjects of the collection. Leaving out one or two evidently put in to fill space, his lightness of touch, his charming language, his trained instinct in the selection of just the significant detail, make the sketches well worth reading. In 'Fédor' es-

specially, the light of the happy domestic life and the shadow of former sin and its hideous consequences are pathetically contrasted, but nothing is forced. Such writing is like hearing the story told by a good talker.

Two years have now gone by since M. Massenet has given a new opera to the stage, but not on this account must it be imagined that the prolific composer has been idle. On the other hand, he has been very active, for it is reported that within the brief space he has completed three considerable operatic works, and, indefatigable, is now busy upon a fourth. The three operas already finished, "Sapho," "Cendrillon," "Grisélidis," will appear in succession at the Opéra Comique, where "Sapho" is already in rehearsal and its stage setting and decorations are being carefully prepared. It is anticipated that a striking effect will be produced in one of the scenes by a chorus of bicyclists. The *Débats* sees in this a shocking anachronism, since at the time when M. Daudet's romance was published, only the very high wheel was in use, and there were no women riders. But really such an anachronism as this is need disturb no one's peace. The subject of Daudet's book has been contemporaneous with many centuries, and seems likely enough to survive all the bicycle fashions.

The *American Antiquarian* has removed its seat of publication to Chicago (at No 5327 Madison Avenue).

Ginn & Co. have issued No. 1, for August, of the *Zoological Bulletin*, a companion serial to the *Journal of Morphology*, designed for shorter contributions, and with no illustrations beyond text figures. Bibliographical lists will not be attempted. The editors are C. O. Whitman and W. M. Wheeler.

The August number of the *Alumni Bulletin* of the University of Virginia is noticeable for the majority and minority reports of a committee appointed to consider the expediency of substituting for Jefferson's scheme of having the executive officer of the University a member of the Faculty a President in the usual fashion. In connection with this discussion should be read the communication from Prof. Edward S. Joynes in the same number. Of interest also is Mr. W. C. N. Randolph's account of the transfers of Monticello since Jefferson's death. After a varied fate of sale, confiscation during the civil war, and dilapidation, the place has been put in good order by the present owner, Mr. Jefferson M. Levy, who admits visitors without fee.

The *Geographical Journal* for August opens with a suggestive technical paper on sub-oceanic changes, by John Milne, F.R.S., the well-known authority on seismology. On the greater part of the ocean floor these changes are very slow, but on the steep slopes of submarine plateaus, at the mouths of great rivers, and at the exits of submarine rivers, they are great, sudden, and numerous. In Japan, for instance, which lies close to the edge of the "Tuscarora Deep," between 1885 and 1892 there were recorded 8,331 earthquakes, of which half originated beneath the sea. These are apparently due to slow geological movements, volcanic action, and landslips from overloading or basal crush. An account of explorations in the region west of Lake Nyasa includes a sketch of the history of the Ngoni, its dominant tribe. The desolating influence of slave-raiding here was shown in the discovery in an un-

inhabited district of numerous disused iron-smelting furnaces. The Astronomer Royal for Scotland, Prof. R. Copeland, contributes a revised map of Franz-Josef Land, with accompanying notes. An examination of the recent Russian census tables, by P. Kropotkin, shows that the centre of gravity of the population of European Russia has been shifted within the last fifty years southward. That is, the Baltic is losing more and more of its importance to Russia, and the Black and Caspian Seas are gaining in proportion. All the large cities, with the exception of St. Petersburg and Riga, are situated to the south of Moscow, and the Prince mentions nine towns, of from 91,000 to 170,000 inhabitants, which fifty years ago were "quite insignificant spots." They are either centres of a considerable trade or of some important branch of industry.

The article of greatest general interest in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 6, is by the editor, Dr. Supan, on the Nansen expedition. After referring to some of its scientific results, he adds that it solved two other problems, that of an "eisfest" ship and of a "polarfest" man. That is, the *Fram* had demonstrated that the best shape and build to resist ice-pressure had been devised, and the equipment of her crew had been equally successful in enabling them to endure without injury the hardships of a polar region. Of these the monotony was probably hardest to bear, and Dr. Supan, calling attention to the signs of growing weariness and impatience shown in the leader's narrative and the captain's diary, suggests that the limit of their endurance had been nearly reached. If they had been out a fourth year, it is not impossible that their "Spannkraft," or power of resistance, would have completely broken down. This is an important consideration in view of Dr. Nansen's proposition for another expedition starting from Bering Straits, which should last five years. Other articles are the conclusion of Prof. Schuchardt's account of the South Caucasians, chiefly Georgians, who speak the Kartli language, and a note accompanying three colored maps showing the rainfall of northern Central America, a complement and correction in some places of Prof. M. W. Harrington's work on the Central American rainfall.

In the death of Frederick D. Stone, librarian of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, the Society has experienced a severe loss. Mr. Stone was one of those able, modest, and hard-working students of American history who accumulate for the use of others, and his genial kindness led him to offer freely his great knowledge of history and biography, general and local, to all who sought information. Under his direction the Society's library has become one of the best historical libraries in the country, if not the best, and his many services will long be remembered by those who have had occasion to use the collections in his keeping. His broad policy has built up a great depository of manuscript and printed material of exceeding richness, and in beginning a systematic copying of the English records in London he has laid a lasting foundation for the study of history in the United States. Mr. Stone published little, but his laborious and painstaking 'Pennsylvania and the Federal Constitution' will stand as proof of his ability in compilation. His endeavor to make the Society's library a centre of research by generously giving access to its stores to any

one who could show an honest intention, has furnished a notable example of liberality of management which would alone suffice to cause him to be held in grateful remembrance.

—The second volume (new series) of the 'Register of the Members of St. Mary Magdalene College, Oxford' (Henry Frowde), contains an account of the Fellows admitted between 1522 and 1575. We are still but inadequately acquainted with the changes in academic life which accompanied the Reformation; and the editor, Mr. Macray, has done well to enrich the present volume with an interesting selection of extracts from the bursary account books and other college records. These enable us, among other things, to trace the rise and development of the Long Vacation; to observe some of the more visible results of the abolition of compulsory clerical celibacy, such as the construction in 1562 of a seat for the President's wife in the chapel near the chancel; and to realize the difficulties which the authorities found in enforcing any sort of decent uniformity among the Fellows in dress and behavior during the early years of Elizabeth. Among the scraps of curious information with which the volume abounds may be noticed the charitable practice of bestowing putrid fish and flesh upon prisoners; the establishment in 1535 of a Greek lectureship, so as to abolish "sophistry, Duns, and such-like stuff"; the regulation in 1555 that Fellows should not cut their hair after the manner of courtiers, nor wear beards; the command (addressed to a couple of Fellows who had shaved their heads in 1559, in derision of the tonsure) that they should wear night-caps until their hair had grown again; and the manumission of serfs, attached to various manors, as late as 1563. It must be confessed that the Fellows of this period were hardly a distinguished lot; perhaps the only man among them whose name is known to the present generation was Fox, the martyrologist. The complaints laid before the Visiter in 1584 (pp. 100-118) are worth comparing with the evidence given upon the visitation of the monasteries before the Dissolution. They show either that celibate clerics living a collegiate life had not improved in sexual morality, or else that they were just as uncharitably suspicious of one another.

—It is hard to say whether the translator of Aristotle's scientific writings ought to be primarily a Hellenist or a Scientist. Mr. W. Ogle, M.A., M.D., F.R.C.P., sometime fellow of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and translator of Aristotle 'On the Parts of Animals,' appears to be a very fair Greclan. His scientific knowledge has enabled him to make an extremely interesting book of his new translation of the minor Aristotelian treatises on Youth and Old Age, Life and Death, and Respiration (Longmans). He deals with his somewhat corrupt text in a light-hearted way, interpolating, emending, transposing, expanding, and elucidating with more regard for the convenience of the modern reader and his own conception of what the meaning ought to be than for the requirements of strict philological method. Some of his interpolations and transpositions are obviously due to a misunderstanding of Aristotle's peculiar style and method of exposition. But they rarely destroy the general sense. In 477 b 12, καθ' αὐτὰ τὴν ἐποκεδίαν εἰπεῖς means: "I have discussed the subject

elsewhere," not, "[Empedocles] made unsupported assertions." Especially interesting is the Introduction, which, after a lucid account of the Aristotelian and other early theories of respiration, traces down to our day the history of the gradual discovery of the true functions of the heart and lungs and the part played by the oxidation of the blood in the vital economy. The Aristotelian doctrine that respiration is a refrigeration which preserves the vital heat from flaming itself away, died hard. Savants were found to defend it even after it was known that animals can live in an atmosphere possessing a temperature higher than that of the blood, and after Boyle had shown experimentally that the death of an animal confined in a limited amount of unrenewed air is not delayed by chilling the air. The lesson of this interesting chapter from the history of science is identical with the text from which Pasteur once preached to the "literary fellows" of the French Academy—the fundamental distinction between experiment and mere observation. Every distinct advance in the understanding of the subject was brought about by the appeal to some Baconian "experiment of the crossways." Speculation and mere observation were alike impotent.

—The Civil Court at Paris, before which the Goncourt will case was tried, announced its decision on August 8. This sustains the will of M. Edmond de Goncourt in every particular, rather against the expectation of the lawyers. The judges seem to have been moved more by the principle of giving great weight to the known wishes of a testator—"potius ut valeant quam ut pereant," as they quote—than by legal technicalities. The wishes of no testator could possibly be more clear than those of M. Edmond de Goncourt were; and in view of this fact the court did not hesitate to pass over the objections that were made as to the uncertain date of the will and as to the vagueness of some of its provisions. As soon as the decision was made known the newspaper reporters naturally flocked at once about M. Alphonse Daudet, who had not very much information to give them. He did not, he said, wish to be more prominent in the new Academy than any other member. It was his intention to propose that the Academy should have no President nor head of any sort. As soon as it could be conveniently managed, he meant to propose a meeting of his colleagues, probably at some rustic cabaret, where they could breakfast together and talk matters over in the most informal fashion, "les coudes sur la table." At this first reunion will probably be elected the two members whom the Academy still lacks to make up the number of ten that Goncourt prescribed. As to who these will be, Daudet had, of course, nothing to say. The names of Rodenbach, of Paul Alexis, of Descaives, had been mentioned, and others besides, but the choice lay with the Academy, and not with him. Their first care would be the foundation of the Goncourt prize for the best book of each year, written in prose. The 5,000 francs for this is of the nature of a first charge upon the estate. No writer who is a candidate for any prize of the French Academy will be permitted to compete for this. As to the question of the *traitements* coming to the Academicians, that is a question which will be considered later. It is Daudet's hope that the reunions of the Académie Goncourt

may come to be known as the "Goncourt dinners," for he does not like the word "Academy"—"c'est bien gros, bien officiel, bien solennel." The amount of the Goncourt bequest, all sales made, is reckoned to be somewhat more than 1,300,000 francs. The Academicians designated by Goncourt himself are Alphonse Daudet, Léon Henrique, Huysmans, the two brothers J. H. Rosny, Gustave Geffroy, Paul Margueritte, and Octave Mirbeau.

—The ascent of Mount St. Elias, which was accomplished by Prince Louis of Savoy and his associates on the 31st of July last, apart from its simple success, is remarkable for the methodical and convincing manner in which it was executed, and fully demonstrates the special adaptability of the Swiss and Italian mountaineers for this class of work. That a mountain rising the better part of half a mile above the summit of Mont Blanc, and in a region where the snow-line descends to within 2,000 to 3,000 feet of the sea-level, or even lower, should have been ascended in a first effort, is evidence of surprising advances that have been made of late years in mountaineering craft. Although by no means rising to the height of the Karakoram Himalayas (Pioneer Peak, some 23,000 feet), whose conquest was the brilliant achievement of Mr. (now Sir) William Conway, or of Aconcagua, which was scaled for the first time in January of the present year by the Swiss guide (also Conway's associate) Zurbriggen, or even of the Ibi Gamin, upwards of 22,000 feet, the ascent of which was made by the Schlagintweit brothers nearly a half century ago, Mt. St. Elias has in its prodigiously extended snow-mantle, and in the hazardous approach to it over the backs of gigantic and greatly rifted glaciers, certain elements associated with it which have been thought to render the mountain one of the most difficult to climb of any on the surface of the earth. But few attempts in this direction have heretofore been made; that of July, 1891, when Prof. Israel Russell reached an elevation, perhaps somewhat indefinitely determined, of 14,000 feet, being the most noteworthy. The American expedition of the present year, under command of Mr. Henry G. Bryant, Vice-President of the Geographical Society of Philadelphia, which preceded the party of Prince Louis by some two weeks, appears not to have reached an elevation exceeding 10,000 feet.

—The two facts of special significance to which the dispatches announcing Prince Louis's success call attention are: the determination of the mountain's altitude, and the demonstration that it is not of volcanic origin, but simply a mass of elevated and partially upturned sedimentary strata, largely fossiliferous in character. The altitude, as computed by the mercurial barometer, is 18,060 feet, a result surprisingly in accord with the determination, by angle measurement, of Prof. Russell, who obtained "18,100, plus or minus a probable error of 100 feet." Earlier measurements of the mountain ranged from less than 13,000 feet (La Pérouse, in 1786) to approximately 19,500 feet (Dall, 1874). It is probably safe to accept the present measurement, which places St. Elias—barring a possible excess in favor of the neighboring Mount Logan—as the second mountain in point of elevation on the North American continent, the place of honor belonging to the Citlaltepetl, the

Star Mountain—better known as the Peak of Orizaba—of Mexico, to which the determinations of Heilprin (1890, aneroid), Scovell (1891, triangulation), and Kaska (1897, mercurial barometer) give 18,2300 feet. The non-volcanic nature of Mount St. Elias had already virtually been determined by Prof. Russell, but it will be a satisfaction to geologists to know that Prince Louis's studies of the mountain for the 4,000 feet left untouched by Russell confirm this investigator's general conclusions.

— Families in search of the best opportunities for art-study for daughters, or women seeking such opportunities for themselves, are no longer rare; and as intelligent and reliable information is often difficult to obtain, we call attention to two pertinent articles in the July and August numbers of *Wege und Ziele* (Stuttgart: Schelosky), a new monthly edited by Agnes Willems-Wildermuth, a daughter of Ottilie Wildermuth. The articles signed "Corvina" are by Fräulein Raabe, daughter of the well-known novelist Wilhelm Raabe ("Corvinus"), who has herself for some years been pursuing art-studies at Munich. She writes of the facilities open to women in that city from the standpoint of a professional artist, for those who feel capable of becoming such. First of all, she warns against illusions. Nobody can become an artist in two or three years; seven or eight years of earnest study and hard work are required, at least half of which is to be given to drawing, the rest to painting. Then she emphasizes the matter of health, which we prefer to do in the words of Becker-Gundahl, who, the other day, told an American girl among his pupils: "The talent is there; the perseverance is there, too; but it takes the constitution of a bear." Miss Raabe also discusses at some length the financial question, and the best ways of living at Munich; but for all these details we must refer the reader to the articles mentioned. Of the various ways of obtaining instruction, also, we have space to name only the one combining the most advantages, viz., the school of the Künstlerinnenverein (89 Türkenstrasse, opposite the Academy). At this institution the students receive two or three weekly "corrections" from the best teachers, besides profiting by those given to their fellow-students, at an expense much less than that incurred in private studios. About two hundred women have joined the various classes this year. The state gives its aid to the new school to the modest amount of 20,000 marks a year—one-tenth of the annual grant to the Academy for men. The work of students exhibited last spring won the praise even of critics who confessedly had to overcome their prejudice against students' exhibitions, and especially against female students.

EVELYN BARING, LORD CROMER.

Lord Cromer: A Biography. By H. D. Traill. Illustrated. Edward Arnold. 8vo, pp. 350.

Lord Cromer, the distinguished representative of English power in Egypt, is still living and in the prime of life. His biography, therefore, reminds us of the "campaign lives" of our aspirants to office; yet with a difference. We are used to cheap editions for universal circulation, badly printed, on poor paper, and the matter apt to be as cheap as the price. This is a fine

octavo, beautifully printed on heavy paper, with portraits and scenes in photogravure and half-tone. It is plain that the appeal is to a select class of readers. This is no effort to introduce an unknown man to general popular favor. It is an analysis of the career of a man who has made his mark in a long course of years, spent mostly in subordinate though important public service. If it has a political motive (and it is not unfair to suppose it has), we must regard it as intended to show that the man who has won distinction enough in great administrative and diplomatic functions to satisfy ordinary ambition, is pointed out by natural selection for still more responsible posts, possibly a place in the cabinet or a viceroyalty.

The book is addressed, on this supposition, to the most thoughtful reading class of his countrymen, and to those, the world over, who are interested in the highest problems of statesmanship. It hints that one who from his youth has devoted himself to the public service, has in that service proved his fitness for the highest confidence of his party friends and the greatest responsibilities a statesman can be called to. The ambition is an honorable one, and the personal history which the book reveals is a good illustration of some of the advantages of a trained and permanent civil service.

Hitherto, Lord Cromer's work has been non-partisan. The rules and customs of the English Government have demanded this. He has served Liberal administrations and Conservative ones; his private political opinions being no barrier to equally faithful subordination to Gladstone or to Salisbury. This book, however, is plainly meant for the eye of the Conservative Unionists, now in power. It tells them that, if Lord Cromer passes from non-partisan diplomatic work into party leadership, it will be as a Conservative. It labors to show that his own opinions have never been in full accord with those of Liberal statesmen, and emphasizes such differences as could be found when hereditary connections and personal action both marked him as a Liberal in the suite of his cousin Lord Northbrook in India. From our side of the ocean, this looks like the weak point in the book. The schism in the Liberal ranks over Home Rule makes a new starting-point in British politics, and we doubt if any member of such a coalition as is now in power gains anything by abating a jot of the liberalism he professed when following Gladstone.

The Barings were types of the business class which has been the strength of English liberalism. As bankers and promoters of great enterprises, they long led in that commercial activity which has been the soul of British prosperity and the pride of the progressive statesmen of the Empire. Prominence in the commercial world and in finance carried the first Lord Ashburton into the House of Peers, where, in the next generation, two more of the descendants of the first Sir Francis appeared with the titles of Northbrook and Revelstoke, and in 1892 Lord Cromer made the fourth of his family who reached the peerage. Evelyn Baring seemed, in his youth, to have chosen a line of life at the antipodes of that for which the family was noted. He prepared for military service, and entered the army as an artillerist. After fifteen years of uneventful army life, he accepted the position of private secretary to his kinsman Lord Northbrook,

Viceroy of India, and with the transfer to the civil service what may seem a hereditary tendency revived, for he gave himself up to the study of financial administration, in which he first won distinction.

In 1876 he was made English Commissioner of the Egyptian debt, when an international control by European nations sought to bring system and solvency into Egyptian finance, bankrupted by the recklessness of Ismail Pasha. Here his clear business sense, his firmness, probity, and thrift soon proved his capacity and led logically to his future career. In 1880 he was promoted to the position of Finance Minister in India, where his reputation grew; and when, in 1883, English occupation of Egypt followed the downfall of Arabi Pasha, he was knighted and appointed Consul-General at Cairo, with the rank of Minister Plenipotentiary in the diplomatic service. Since that day his importance has grown with the growth of English power in the Nile valley, for he has been in a peculiar sense the organ of England's tightening grasp on the country, and of the exercise of its real government in the name of the obedient Khedive.

Sir Evelyn Baring's return to Egypt was practically coincident with the destruction of General Hicks and his army by the fanatical hordes of the new Mahdi. It was a startling crisis. Whether the disaster was due to the worthlessness of the Egyptian army or to the reckless courage of the Mahdi's followers, or (as the event proved) to both, the Liberal Government of England had to face a most perplexing problem. It had disavowed the purpose of extending the Empire, and was committed to the withdrawal from Egypt as soon as order and safe government could be solidly restored. Its leaders had condemned the Khedive's occupation of the Sudan, both upon principle and on policy. A power which could hardly stand alone was in no condition to make conquests fifteen hundred miles away, or to administer the conquered country. The English ministry was bound to consider the question as one to be solved on the basis of the Khedive's policy and power, assuming that he would soon be restored to the complete government of his dominions. It was not at all the question what would be British policy if Egypt and the Sudan had been dependencies like India.

In the presence of European jealousies and the probability that war would follow any attempt to extend the temporary occupation into annexation, there was no radical difference between English parties. Their disputes were on matters of detail. As soon as it was known that Hicks and his army were destroyed, Baring called together Gens. Stephenson, Wood, and Baker, the most competent military advisers within reach, and took their opinion. It was unanimous that Egypt had not the force to hold the Sudan, and that it was necessary to withdraw the garrisons and fall back from Khartum upon Egypt proper. In this opinion Baring explicitly concurred, and it was also adopted as the policy of the English Government. When, then, Lord Cromer's biographer seeks to create the impression that he was only acquiescing in the resolve of his Government "to wash their hands of the Sudan," an impartial reader will feel that it shows more partisanship than candor. Baring had given it as his "own opinion" that it was "wiser" to "withdraw to whatever point on the Nile they can be sure of

defending." This policy may fairly be said to have been accepted *nem. con.* Remaining questions would be simply of time and method.

When Gen. Gordon was appointed and sent to Khartum, it was to carry out this policy; and he seems to have been confident that he could do it, gaining time by his personal influence in the Sudan and with the Mahdi himself, "who is nephew to my old guide in Darfur, who was a very good fellow." On reaching Khartum, however, the gravity of the situation dawned rapidly on Gordon. He found that instead of a small storm centre of fanaticism, a strange religious epidemic was sweeping the whole Mohammedan population into a wild crusade, if we may apply a Christian term to this upheaval of African Islam. But instead of seeing that this only made it more imperative to organize everything rapidly for his retreat, his combative ardor took flame, and he began to cry out that the "Mahdi must be smashed up," and that evacuation would be an "indelible disgrace." Instead of doing the duty of a military subordinate to make a success of a plan arranged with his own approval, he assumed the functions of the ministry and planned to hold Khartum and force the Government to sustain him there. His genius, his heroism, and his tragic end cannot change this fact.

In the essentials of all this, Baring was wholly in accord with his Government, and the Government was right: right not only from the point of view statesmen then occupied, but right when all the knowledge after the fact is weighed. For Europe, for Egypt, for the Sudan itself, it was better that that wild region should be left for a dozen years to "stew in its own juice." It was better to let the Mahdi's power ripen and decay. It was wiser and better use of the time to make Egypt solvent and thrifty; to reorganize its army so that it be fit to meet the fierce hordes of which the fellahs were afraid in 1883; to watch carefully the progress of European influences in other parts of the dark continent, and to resume a vigorous policy when the time was ripe. The event has equally justified Baring's original opinion that it was wiser to withdraw in '84, and Gen. Kitchener's recent advance to Dongola, also approved by Lord Cromer. It seems from this distance, therefore, the mere wantonness of partisanship for the biographer to rail at the Gladstone ministry, and to say that, to it, "no advice about Egypt commanded or could command itself unless in some form or other it spelt 'scuttle.'" The history, reasonably read, would make Lord Cromer a statesman whose clear judgment and wise forecast were powerful in both parts of a great policy. The biographer, to make him out a Conservative partisan, rakes the subordinate and immaterial details to prove that he was not in harmony with what the event has shown to be sound and wise.

The truth is, that the real strength of England's position is found in the general confidence of Europe that the occupation of Egypt was really an unwelcome necessity, and that its liberal statesmen were honestly anxious to terminate it as soon as it could be safely done. It was this that made the obstructiveness and jealousy of France seem unreasonable, and disjointed French schemes to create embarrassment. It was better than any craftily planned opportunism, for it has been followed by all the ad-

vantages of such plans while it had the merit of being sincere. To have put large bodies of English troops into Egypt in '84 would have been understood to mean conquest and annexation, and would have stimulated the antagonism of every rival Power in the world. As matters actually went, there was abroad a half-amused satisfaction at seeing the British Government wrestling with what seemed likely to prove an insoluble problem. Lord Cromer's best claim to statesmanship is that, being heartily in accord with his Government, he strongly grasped the conditions of the problem, laid the foundation of success in fostering, not exploiting, the resources of the country; in honest thrift in financial expenditure; in thorough and steady elevation of the efficiency of the army; and in absolute firmness in the principle that these reforms must be real, and not superficial shams.

The Mahdi's career and that of his successor proved more important than was expected, and it was not till Slatin Bey made his escape and told the wonderful story of his captivity that we could fully understand what had happened. He has taught us how the cloud like a man's hand grew till it became a tempest. The rumors of a great revival were received in Darfur first with languid curiosity, then with deep but vague interest. The hopes that were excited were such as appealed to the strongest sentiments of Mohammedans with their traditions of sweeping conquests over the Christian dogs. Spies sent for information caught the contagion and came back zealots for the Mahdi. The virus spread everywhere; the soldiers were infected, and even before it was known that Khartum had fallen, there was no authority which could stand against the popular wave. There had been months when Slatin Bey might have taken part in a concentric retreat out of Darfur upon Dongola; but promptness in the evacuation had been a necessary condition of success. After the fall of Khartum and the death of Gordon, there was nothing for it but to recognize the truth that a new and powerful empire had been born at the head-waters of the Nile, and, though it might be short-lived, it would be madness to attack it without first regenerating Egypt.

The task was no small one and demanded all the practical sense, steady judgment, inflexible will, and unflinching courage which have given the English race its power over less civilized nations. To have been a brilliant type of these national qualities, and to have been fully up to the demands of his great task, is very high praise for Lord Cromer, but it seems to be deserved. His dominant will has often seemed tyrannical to the Khedive and his native ministers, but this was one of the necessities of the situation. The principle was correctly stated by Lord Granville at the start, "that in important questions where the administration and safety of Egypt are at stake, it is indispensable that her Majesty's Government should, so long as the provisional occupation of the country by English troops continues, be assured that the advice which, after full consideration of the views of the Egyptian Government they may feel it their duty to tender to the Khedive, should be followed." This is only the diplomatic form of saying that responsibility for safety implies dictation of the means. It was the misfortune of the Khedive and his Egyptian advisers that they must accept subordina-

tion. It was the embarrassing part of Lord Cromer's duty that he had to be the mouth-piece and the right arm of his Government in a dictation which could not fail at times to be chafing. That no worse charge than "brusqueness" has been made against him, is pretty good evidence of the good temper and consideration with which he has performed his task.

The results for the Egyptian people have been such as every generous mind must glory in. If Ismail, Tewfik, and Abbas have passed from the list of rulers of men into that of nominal dignitaries only, the history of three generations and the wrongs of the fellahs show that only justice has been done. It will be a sad day for Egypt if power shall return to her old rulers before the reforms so well begun shall be rooted so deep that no Khedive can undo them. What more telling proof of this could be imagined than that the son of a prominent supporter of Arabi Pasha, the man who wrecked a great career in what he thought a patriotic effort to throw off the foreign dominion, should now be among the most emphatic witnesses to the good England has wrought for the Egyptian people?

Friends of good government everywhere will readily admit that Lord Cromer has well earned his advancement in his country's service, and that he may fairly aspire to still higher and more responsible duties, if indeed such can be found. They may wish that his biographer had not sought to narrow into party lines a career that might otherwise seem to be "meant for mankind"; but this is only a minor blemish in the lesson we may learn of the true methods by which a practical and business-like civil service educates men for a great career.

FARNELL'S CULTS OF THE GREEK STATES.

The Cults of the Greek States. By L. R. Farnell. Longmans.

The gods of Greece are, for literature and art, self-renewing ideal types, remaining, "in midst of other woe," to teach the lesson, "Beauty is truth, truth beauty." To the scientific student of origins they are among the most perplexing of problems. What is the relation of the Diana of the Louvre to the mysterious goddess, half-fish, half-woman, whose image, fastened by a chain, was worshipped at Phigalia in a temple surrounded by cypresses and opened only once in a year? Why were young Athenian girls required to don imitation bearskins and dance fantastic rounds in honor of the "queen and huntress chaste and fair" of the Hippolytus? How shall we associate the face of the Ludovisi Hera with her who hid herself from Zeus in a pet on Mount Cithaeron, and was brought back in a fit of jealous rage by his mock marriage with a wooden puppet? How did the cone-shaped column of Apollo Agnus become the Apollo Belvedere? What have the "Zeus Shoo-fly" (*άριόνες*) of Olympia and the Arcadian Zeus of the wolf clan and the cannibal rite —what have these grotesque or hideous imaginations to do with the Zeus of the choruses of the "Agamemnon" and the "Antigone"? We are all familiar with the answers to these problems devised by ingenious men: The Greek gods are the colored refraction of the white ray of an original monotheistic tradition. They are the pro-

ducts of a disease of language—*numina* born of *nomina*—a misunderstanding of highly figurative talk about the weather. They are allegorical embodiments of early philosophical speculations. They are the ghosts of dead ancestors haunting the dreams of prehistoric man. They are mere survivals of primitive animism, fetishism, totemism, or plant worship.

The vigorous and rigorous application of any one of these theories to the interpretation of all the phenomena is a delightful pastime for ingenious and erudite minds; but in time we weary of the game. Pallas Athene may conceivably have been the queen of the air, the lightning bursting through the storm-cloud, the dawn leaping from the forehead of the sky, or the ideal reflection of Athenian life and character. She is not demonstrably any one of them. Our minds are baffled by a science which proves to be a kind of Baconian cryptogram for expressing everything through everything. The horse is the familiar of Agen because he is swift and fire is swift. He goes with Aphrodite because he is the corn spirit and she is the genius of vegetation, and accompanies Neptune because waves are horses of the sea. Aphrodite is Venus Marina because of "a social necessity of early maritime commerce in the Mediterranean"; or, if you prefer, because she is the sun, and sunset and sunrise are of peculiar beauty on Greek waters. Reference to the erudition of our teachers makes us accept a certain amount of this logic with docility; but, sooner or later, we are driven to open revolt, it may be by some such argument as Roscher's proof that Hera must be the moon because she is called "large-eyed," and Æschylus and Pindar speak of the moon as the "eye of night."

To this mood Mr. Farnell's sober and scholarly volumes on the cults of the Greek States will be very welcome. The title indicates a method rather than a limitation. The author rightly deems it essential to distinguish between the "embroidery" of the poets and the religious epithets and conceptions actually attested for the public worship of the Greeks. But he has neglected nothing in the literary record of serious significance for the illustration of Greek religion, and his chapters on Zeus, Hera, Athena, Artemis, and Aphrodite are virtually monographs that in completeness and accuracy will bear comparison with the best chapters in Welcker or Preller, or the fullest articles in Roscher's Lexicon. What distinguishes his method from theirs is that, instead of assuming in his first paragraph a root or fundamental conception of a god to be followed through all the ramifications of tradition, he begins with a plain statement of the earliest discoverable traces of the cult in Greece. When, as usually happens, the evidence does not justify dogmatic affirmation as to etymologies and origins, Mr. Farnell makes this plain by destructive criticism of the more prominent German theories, and then passes on to enumerate, as nearly as may be in historic sequence, the chief local cults and trace their development. Finally, the religious and ideal significance of the deity as revealed in the literature is brought out. Especially interesting here are the last twenty pages of the chapter on Zeus, dealing with the conceptions of Nemesis and Fate, and the tendency of the religion of Zeus towards monotheism. In each case separate chapters, excellently

illustrated by beautiful plates, are devoted first to the surviving cult monuments, and, second, to the chief ideal types of the divinity in Greek art. Last, but by no means least, the author gives us for each god a full systematic citation of the Greek sources, extending in the case of Zeus to some forty pages of Greek text.

Detailed criticism of this mass of material is beyond our scope. Mr. Farnell has faithfully studied the German authorities; but he writes in a spirit of reaction against philological and meteorological mythology. The authors whom he quotes with most respect are Robertson Smith, Frazer, Mannhardt, and Andrew Lang. He rarely resorts to etymology or nature symbolism in the explanation of a myth; solar mythology must relinquish Zeus, he tells us. We have no right to say that the name Demeter means Mother Earth. The Titanomachy has no meaning as a myth of thunder and lightning; it is more probably a vague reminiscence of the conflict of religions in the Greek world. The sacred marriage of Zeus and Hera never symbolized the bridal of the earth and sky. The dark ægis which Athena wore and which Zeus brandished over the perfidious Trojans, is not the storm-cloud, but the hide of the theanthropic goat. These are hard sayings. It is doubtless true, as a matter of method, that the study of cults, survivals, folk-lore, and the psychology of primitive man will carry us further in the interpretation of mythology than the direct application of our sophisticated nature symbolism. But such a generality avails little in particular cases. Each one of the competing theories represents doubtless a *vera causa*, but none may be safely used as a *passpartout*. And when we recall that Mr. Frazer succeeded in convincing himself that Zeus (the Shining) is not the bright sky, but a tree god, the bright fire having originally come from the friction of wood; and when Mr. Farnell, after showing that Aphrodite is a divinity of vegetation because Adonis is the boar and the boar is the corn spirit, meets the objection that the horse also is sacred to Aphrodite by the rejoinder that "the horse is one of the most common embodiments of the corn spirit"—we begin to suspect that, when the trick is once known, the corn spirit may prove as easy to work as the dawn or the twilight.

In the uncertainty of the etymologies of proper names the problem of the comparative mythologist is what that of the comparative philologist would become were it not for the guidance of exact phonetic law. He is required to determine the actual historical association of ideas among many conflicting possible or plausible associations. The plurality of causes and the defectiveness of the record forbid dogmatism in the majority of instances. The early imagination may have had intuitions of identities and analogies in nature, for which we have lost the feeling, and the "lively Grecian in a land of hills" may have personified such apprehensions in deities whose attributes seem disparate and unrelated to our duller sense until an artist, such as Mr. Pater shows himself in his *Study of Dionysus*, restores us to imaginative sympathy with the creators of the myth.

But, again, the incongruous attribute or rite may be due to contamination with other deities, brought about by migration, commerce, or conquest; it may be a reflection of the developing life of the worshippers, or

of the struggle for existence of competing religions; it may be a survival, a popular etymology, or an accidental accretion from the general stock of savage folk-lore. The ideal of science would be to take a developed divinity with all his epithets, attributes, ritual, legends, and associated religious sentiment, and show in what precise intuition or wild fancy of the primitive mind he took his origin, and by what definite process of development all these accretions attached to the original germ. Possibly some future scholar endowed with the *ondoyant* and *divers* genius of a Pater or a Renan will be able to construct for us a credible history of how the thing might have come to be, that shall retain its typical value independently of the validity of the special hypotheses employed as scaffolding. In default of such a work of genius, we must heartily commend the good sense and restraint of Mr. Farnell, despite the "dryness and coldness of tone" to which he deprecatingly refers in his preface. His book will doubtless exercise a steady and sobering effect on English scholarship. Mr. Pater would hardly have affirmed so confidently that mythological science tells us that Nike is the victory of the dawn over the darkness, had he been permitted to read Mr. Farnell's lucid account of the relations between Nike and Athena. But so ceaseless is the intellectual activity of our day that a book has hardly left the press before it in turn is antiquated in some regards; and Mr. Farnell himself would have qualified his assertion that Nike is a mere emanation of Athena, if he had waited to study Usener's epoch-making treatment of transparent divinities, or Sondergötter, in the 'Griechische Götternamen.'

Mr. Farnell will have ample opportunity to review the whole question in his promised chapter on Abstract Divinities. We do not see how he can expect to finish his work in one more volume with Apollo, Dionysus, Ares, Hephaestos, Hestia, Demeter, and a host of minor deities yet to be treated. But we wish him all success, and hope soon to congratulate him on the completion of what bids fair to be the standard English authority on his subject.

The Romance of Isabel Lady Burton: The Story of her Life, told in part by herself, and in part by W. H. Wilkins. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Not long after Lady Burton had finished her Life of her husband, she set to work with her usual energy on her autobiography. This was hardly more than begun at the time of her death, so the task had to be completed, with the help of her papers, by another hand, at less length, but perhaps quite as well. Shortly before it was done Miss Stisted's 'The True Life of Capt. Sir Richard Burton' (reviewed in these columns) appeared with its severe criticisms of certain of her actions. Her biographer took up the challenge and in the main answers the charges satisfactorily. At any rate, the public has now not only the well-known story of one of the most extraordinary men of his age, but also two views of his private life, of his relations with his wife, and of the causes of his many disappointments. Still, with this evidence before us, it is not easy to come to definite conclusions on several points.

Isabel Lady Burton, née Arundell of War-

dour, was born on March 20, 1831. Her family belonged to the old and exclusive Catholic nobility of England; and to the end of her days we find, among her strongest traits, pride of birth, which, together with her pride in her husband, gave her an exalted idea of her position that she was prone to assert, and a fervent Catholicism never for an instant affected by the free-thinking of the man she worshipped and for whose conversion she unceasingly prayed. Her childhood was uneventful, albeit filled with dreams of an adventurous life that were probably not stranger than those of many another young girl who has afterwards led a humdrum existence. However, the tale of her courtship, engagement, and marriage is romantic enough, even if we make allowance for a little heightening of color in the narration. We may, too, readily admit that she set her cap for Burton, as Miss Stisted declares, without judging that she did anything uncommon or blame-worthy. She merely fell in love first, as was natural, considering her age, his attainments and reputation (which made him like the hero of her dreams), and an accidental prophecy of a gypsy of a sort to excite a girl's imagination; but she does not seem to have put herself too much forward. Hardly were they married when he had to accept a consulship at Fernando Po, where no white woman could live, so that the couple were not together for any length of time until he was transferred to Santos in Brazil. Here they began their curious system of housekeeping, whose most striking characteristic was its continual interruptions, owing to their incurable love of wandering.

Burton was restlessness itself, a born traveller and explorer, who was ever happiest when undertaking some difficult expedition, his iron constitution enabling him to endure climates and fatigues that would have killed most men. His wife also must have had great vitality, spirit of adventure, courage, energy, and determination, besides blind devotion to the slightest wish of her lord and master. In many ways she suited him as few women could have done, sharing his tastes, and falling in uncomplainingly with his strange ways (Heaven knows what would have happened to their children if they had had any), and even, we can see, doing violence to her own nature. He could not have had a more untiringly faithful companion, and her business ability helped to make possible their lavish style of living. On the other hand, without repeating the accusation that she was stupid, we cannot help feeling that in certain respects she was obtuse, that a certain narrow and straight-mindedness in her make-up prevented her from wholly understanding her brilliant, wayward husband. If, as an author, she not infrequently makes her readers smile or rasp on their nerves, she must more than once have been a grievous trial to such a sensitive man as Burton, till he learned to bear it with his usual philosophy. We suspect that the last quality she possessed was tact, and we are forced to condemn severely her want of taste, as shown in certain passages which her biographer would have done well to omit, though a failing of this kind can hardly have troubled the translator of the 'Arabian Nights.' With all her unselfish devotion Lady Burton cannot have been of a retiring disposition; few people less so. We cannot agree that in her

Life of her husband she "studiously avoided putting herself forward." The book gives rather the opposite impression.

The busiest and happiest period in the career of this strange pair was the two years in Damascus, where all their characteristics stand out clearly on a congenial background. Miss Stisted accuses Lady (then Mrs.) Burton of being the chief cause of her husband's recall. Mrs. Wilkins answers victoriously in a whole chapter, in which, though she does not entirely clear her of unwise conduct in regard to the Shazli Christian converts, she proves conclusively that Burton, however well suited to live in the East, was not fitted to have any sort of diplomatic appointment there—an opinion that seems to have been firmly held by the British Foreign Office (which had suspected as much before) from this time on, whichever party was in power, in spite of kindly personal feelings, at least on the part of Lord Salisbury. Burton was far from being a "safe" man, so for eighteen years he was quietly housed in Trieste, where he could not easily get into trouble, and where he was given and took an astonishing amount of leave of absence.

We will not enter into the details of the death-bed controversy, but merely say that we acquit Lady Burton of any but the best motives in having administered extreme unction to her husband, pagan though he had always been. She was, perhaps, fanatical and mistaken; very possibly he was already dead, but she believed that he still lived, that she had his authorization, and that she was saving his eternal soul. Even if we disagree with her, it is difficult to judge her harshly. So, too, in her burning of the 'Scented Garden.' Not only the translation itself, but Burton's commentary, was undoubtedly nasty, to use a plain adjective. It could do no good to any one except to his wife, to whom it would bring money. Without going into his character and motives, or into the thorny question of what is permissible in literature or in semi-scientific writing, we cannot but admire the courage of the woman who, at a great pecuniary sacrifice to herself, and at a sacrifice of her obedience to her dead husband's wishes that were hardly less than a religion to her, burned this, his latest work, because she thought it would injure his good fame. It is precisely this heroism in her nature that forces us to overlook her obvious deficiencies.

In conclusion, we note that, though Lady Burton's loose style is at times irritating, and though she gives the most trivial events the prominence of important ones, she holds our attention. Mrs. Wilkins, also, has, on the whole, done her share with judgment and success, so that we have a book which is interesting for more than one reason. Some of the illustrations are neither beautiful nor appropriate.

Sequel to 'Our Liberal Movement.' By Joseph Henry Allen, late Lecturer on Ecclesiastical History. Boston: Roberts Brothers. Pp. 157.

It is true, as Dr. Johnson said, that "few people who have lived with a man know what to remark about him," but Dr. Allen is one of the few who are gifted with such knowledge. It is almost entirely of men whom he has known that he writes in this small volume, and he writes of them with the rarest sympathy and discrimination. He

has an eye for character, for individuality, and if sometimes we miss foibles and limitations, or wish that a hint of them given here and there had been more expanded, it is not that he was blind to any of these things, but that he prefers to recognize and exhibit what was most significant and what constituted the value of this one or that for his generation and his friends. Some of the sketches, like those of Dr. Thomas Hill and Frederick Newman Knapp, are the more interesting and valuable because dealing with men too little appreciated in proportion to their worth. In fact, one of the most attractive features of Dr. Allen's mind is the very tender feeling that he has for men of native force and genius who, from some defect in their quality or some untoward circumstance, are disqualified from doing what they seem to promise at the start.

The first chapter in Dr. Allen's book reproduces an address before the Harvard Divinity School in 1896. Delightful to those who heard it in the little chapel where Emerson gave his famous address of 1838, it is hardly less so to read, especially for those who, reading leisurely, blend their own recollections of Andrews Norton, Henry Ware, Jr., Convers Francis, John G. Palfrey, and others with Dr. Allen's. It is a sign of how fast we go that Dr. Noyes was threatened in 1834 with indictment for blasphemy for questioning the New Testament fulfilment of the Old Testament prophecies. That the School was not in those times wholly reactionary is shown by the fact that Dr. Noyes was made a professor in the School close on the heels of that event. And Mr. Norton, notwithstanding his attack on Emerson's "Address," as "The Latest Form of Infidelity," published in 1844 a "Note on the Old Testament" which was the thin edge of the wedge of what we call the Higher Criticism at the century's end. We miss in Dr. Allen's account of Dr. Noyes the personal note which is elsewhere so prominent; and, possibly, its absence means that when Dr. Allen was in the School, Dr. Noyes was not that object of personal affection which he became later on.

In a second chapter Dr. Allen attempts to indicate the nature and extent of the German influence upon Unitarian thought. The stress at the German end is upon Schleiermacher and Paulus and Baur; at this end on Parker, Hedge, Clarke, Furness, and (too slightly) Ripley. The limitations of this excellent chapter are an inadequate appreciation of the second-hand German influence of Coleridge and Carlyle, and the direct influence of Strauss, whose criticism of supernaturalist and naturalistic interpretations was quite independent of his mythical theory, the essence of which, however, is the life and soul of a great deal of the best criticism of the present time. It is, perhaps, worth remarking that Dr. Furness, whose naturalism made him seem a Paulus whom the gods had made poetical, disavowed any debt to Paulus whatsoever.

"Forty Years Later" is an admirable comparison between the liberal movement as it was in Dr. Allen's youth and it is in his hale and invincible old age. His chapter upon Dr. Hedge is the most expansive of all the sketches in the book. He succeeded Dr. Hedge as minister of the Bangor parish, and was his intimate companion in the closing decades of his life. Philosophically they

were far apart—Dr. Hedge a metaphysician, Dr. Allen scientific and positivist; and, by the way, one of the few Americans who enjoyed a personal acquaintance with Auguste Comte. But Dr. Allen could not have been more appreciative of his friends if they had been chips from the same metaphysical block.

In chapter v. we have "Some Younger Memories" of a dozen men more or less loosely affiliated with the Unitarian body. Among them are James Freeman Clarke, William G. Eliot of St. Louis, Thomas Starr King, Samuel Longfellow, O. B. Frothingham. Of all these and the others, Dr. Allen writes as he knew them, plucking out the heart of what was most essential in their characters and aims. One name conspicuously absent is that of Samuel Johnson, a man equally remarkable for his philosophical ability and for his moral passion in the anti-slavery conflict. It is only because Johnson was not one of Dr. Allen's familiar friends that he is wanting in the list. The *Nation's* older readers especially will be gratified by the simple and affecting tribute to Dr. Allen's brother, the late Prof. William Francis Allen of the University of Wisconsin.

Any complete list of Unitarian worthies would include Dr. Allen's own name, and not the least pleasant feature of his book is its casual reflection of his own character and life. He is so fond of reminiscence and so apt at characterization that he should have given us a book four times as big as this, full of his recollections of the men whom he has known and the systems of great hope and promise that have had their day and ceased to be.

A Treatise on Rocks, Rock-Weathering, and Soils. By George P. Merrill. Macmillan. 1897. Pp. xx-411. Ill.

Prof. Merrill, already well known through his 'Stones for Building and Decoration,' and various monographs issued by the United States Geological Survey, has done a real service in preparing a work whose chief aim is to review fully and concisely the agents of rock-weathering, a subject which until now has been treated only in a fragmentary manner. By way of introduction—for the work is written as much for the general reader as for the scientist—a brief account of rocks offers the most logical presentation of the leading facts in lithology which has yet been published. Microscopic petrography has led to such a fine discrimination, and has encouraged so much variety in nomenclature and classification, that a host of students can sympathize with that facetious Western mining engineer who recently published the following rule for identifying rocks: "Ascertain the two or three predominant minerals in your specimen; select from the lithologies all those names of rocks containing the minerals found; put these in a hat; shake them up, and draw one." The tendency has been steadily towards classification on the basis of chemical composition, but the matter of origin and structure has persistently embarrassed our lithological taxonomists. Prof. Merrill has gone one step farther. His major divisions are necessarily genetic, yielding igneous, aqueous aeolian, and metamorphic rocks. The principle of origins controls the subdivisions of the aqueous into chemical, sedimentary, and organogenous groups, while structure

forms the basis of division among the metamorphic. The igneous rocks, however, are classified absolutely upon a chemical basis, and thus we have the resemblances between granites, liparites, and quartz-porphries not only distinctly recognized, but made the bond of union into a single group, called the Granite-Liparite Group, representing the extreme types of the plutonic and effusive rocks of like composition. In the same manner the Syenite-Trachyte, Diorite-Andesite, Gabbro-Basalt, and other groups are derived. The simplicity and beauty of this classification as compared with the old systems are obvious. Attention should also be called to Prof. Merrill's brief little list of only thirty original rock-forming minerals (or fifty-one, including the varieties of the feldspars, amphiboles, etc.), and of twenty-two secondary minerals, all of which the student should be taught to recognize under whatsoever conditions they may be met with.

The term *weathering* is used in this work in its more limited sense, as restricted to "processes involving the destruction of the rock mass as a geological body," while Prof. Merrill prefers "to designate the purely mineralogical, deeper-seated changes as *alteration*, which may or may not be due wholly to hydrometamorphism." This limitation of the treatise is unfortunate. By reason of it one misses a completeness in the discussion, for it is not easy to draw a line, save in a few cases, between the regions where these two classes of changes are separately in progress, and there are such close interrelations between the superficially acting forces and those in the zones of the vadose circulation (which might popularly be termed "fountain water") and the deeper-seated plutonic circulation, that it is hardly proper to draw the line sharply between their effects. The weakness of such an attempt is shown by constant recurrence throughout the book to the processes of mineral alteration which are involved in weathering, and Prof. Merrill is particularly emphatic in his statement (p. 388) that—

"The ultimate product of weathering of rocks of any but the purely siliceous type is a more or less ferruginous clay, which may be contaminated or admixed with coarser foreign particles. It is the extent of decomposition, more than its lithological derivation, that determines both the chemical composition and physical characteristics of any soil."

We cannot but wish that the author had taken under consideration the whole broad question of the destructive agencies which are changing the rock ribs of mother earth. It is not enough to say that one results in secondary formations, the other in destruction, degradation. The results of superficial weathering and erosion are, after all, but secondary products, the accidental circumstance of transportation making but little difference in this view. Furthermore, the deeper-seated changes, and the relations these may bear to superficial conditions, are of great economic as well as geologic importance. It is to be hoped that Prof. Merrill will make good the deficiency in this book by giving us its natural counterpart.

The subject-matter in his discussion of weathering is familiar to all close students of geological phenomena. The advantage here is that a vast fund of information is epitomized and rendered conveniently accessible. A classification, in tabular form, of

corroso-erusive agencies would, however, have been valuable as a chart from which the general reader might get his bearings occasionally amid the sea of facts. This is not saying that there is any lack of orderly arrangement, for it would seem that classification is one of the author's strong points. He deserves congratulation also for the introduction of a new term which is useful and will doubtless be readily accepted by geologists. For the "most superficial and unconsolidated portion of the earth's crust," various names have been suggested, such as *geest*, *saprolite*, etc., but none seems to cover the case so well as Prof. Merrill's "*regolith*," from *ρῆγος*, a blanket, and *λίθος*, a stone. From this he proceeds to discuss the sedimentary and transported regolithic deposits, with their proper varieties, classified on a genetic basis.

The author's style is pleasant and easy. The book is typographically very neat and elegant. The plates and figures are abundant, and truly elucidate the text. It is to be regretted that the proof-reading has not been executed with scrupulous accuracy, and that the index is deficient in the number of references and in correctness. But these errors are not so important as seriously to impair the value of this work, which should be in the hands of every person interested in lithology, geology, or physical geography.

Social England. By H. D. Traill. Vol. VI. Putnams.

This sixth and last volume of the co-operative history edited by Mr. Traill, covering the period from the battle of Waterloo to the general election of 1885, is characterized by the same merits and defects as its predecessors. There is the same abundance of instructive papers on—to quote the title-page—"the progress of the people in religion, laws, learning, arts, industry, commerce, science, literature, and manners"; they are of every variety of workmanship, from the sober and stodgy collection of facts to the brilliant essay; they proceed both from the recognized authority on his own subject and from the handy man-of-all-work. Among those most interesting to the general reader may be mentioned the editor's own essays on literature (marred somewhat by the repetition of pet phrases, such as "root of the matter" and "flux and reflux"), and those of Mr. Hughes on painting, of Canon Bonney on geology, of Mr. Prothero on agriculture, of Mr. Farrer on railroads, of Prof. Montague on legal procedure, of Miss Morris on decorative art, and of Miss Bateson on costume and social usage. The amount of distinctly inferior hack work is much less in this than in some of the previous volumes; a special effort has been made to secure an adequate treatment of physical science; and the few concluding pages on the colonies (probably an afterthought, but an excellent one) are well conceived and to the point.

On the other hand, there is the same want of proportion. Perhaps we are apt to assign too much influence to ecclesiastical organization and formulated theology in social life; yet, from any point of view, one would find it hard to justify an apportionment of space which gives almost as much room to Pottery as to the Church. And, to descend to details, we are justified in feeling cross with

an editor who can give only eight words to Clough, and yet allow a contributor to occupy valuable space with the statement that a certain Cambridge scholar, of by no means the first order of importance, "won the recognition of an honorary degree at Edinburgh"! The absence of unity, of architectonic arrangement, of guiding principles in the selection and display of facts, is even more glaringly apparent now that the undertaking has reached its conclusion. Each chapter begins with a brief sketch of political history. In what relation is it supposed to stand to the "social" progress next set forth? We are left to make it out for ourselves. The last two chapters are decorated with the titles, "The Rule of the Middle Class, 1846-1865" and "The Succession of the Democracy, 1865-1885"; no attempt is made

to justify these epithets. There are separate sections on "The Social Economy"; but these sometimes repeat what other writers have said before, and sometimes restrict themselves to a part of the field.

The book is essentially a publisher's book, manufactured to sell, appealing to the prevalent interest in everything "social," but without any steady or consistent conception of its own scope and purpose. Such a work may be of great use in the popularization of knowledge, and may contain pages here and there that will be valuable even to the competent student of particular subjects, and yet the whole book will be unsatisfactory and chaotic.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Claretie, Jules. *The Crime of the Boulevard*. R. F. Fenno & Co. \$1.25.

Copinger, Prof. W. A. *The Bible and its Transmission: Being an Historical and Bibliographical View of the Hebrew and Greek Texts, and the Greek, Latin, and other Versions of the Bible (both MS. and Printed) prior to the Reformation*. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Dawson, M. M. *Principles of Insurance Legislation*. New York: Humboldt Library.

Ebers, Georg. *Barbara Blomberg: A Historical Romance*. 2 vols. Appletons.

Horton, George. *Aphrodessa: a Legend of Argolis, and Other Poems*. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Johnston, Sir H. H. *British Central Africa*. Edward Arnold. \$10.

Macarthur, Henry. *Realism and Romance, and Other Essays*. Edinburgh: R. W. Hunter.

Macray, W. D. *A Register of the Members of St. Mary Magdalen College*. Oxford. Vol. II. London and New York: Henry Frowde.

Mathias, John. *Game British Deer and their Horns*. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Peabody, Josephine P. *Old Greek Stories Told Anew*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12c.

Quigley, Dorothy. *Success is for You*. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Skene, A. J. C. *True to Themselves*. F. T. Neely. 50c.

Van Bergen, R. *The Story of Japan*. American Book Co. \$1.

Williams, R. P. *Elements of Chemistry*. Boston: Glan & Co. \$1.25.

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